Understanding university students' time use: a mixed-methods study of their leisure lives

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By

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Abstract

This thesis explores patterns of time use among university students to further understand their leisure time as an aspect of their day-to day lives, especially with regard to their time spent drinking alcohol. Attending university can be viewed as a key aspect in the prolongation of the youth life-stage for some young people, and a key influence on how they develop their own identities and spend their leisure time. In this regard, research suggests that far from being a homogeneous group, there can be a marked difference between sub-groups of students. Residence, for example, has been shown to be a particularly significant factor influencing how students report their university experience. Furthermore, a number of studies report that rather than being fixed, young people's leisure lives, including their time spent drinking, tend to be dynamic, context-dependent and develop in some significant ways during their university careers. However, studies that have focused on university students have tended to study aspects of their leisure in isolation. This study aimed to address this limitation by studying students' lives 'in the round' in order to more adequately understand the contextual complexity of their lives and how this might shape patterns of time use on leisure in general and drinking alcohol in particular.

Using a mixed-methods approach, the research studied a panel of students as they made the transition to university, and through their degree programme in a post-92 university in the North of England. Utilizing a pre-coded 7-day time use diary, quantitative data was collected from this panel at two points in time - midway through their first year and again midway through their second year. Focus groups at similar points in time were also carried out with a sample of students from the panel to understand the social processes shaping their use of time. Sex, residential status, age, and family history of higher education were key variables in the analysis of the quantitative data.

The study drew on the sociological concepts of identity, socialization and habitus formation, and capital to explain the findings. Findings revealed that the structure of the student experience (induction, timetabling demands, and so on) the social context of students' residential status, and their predispositions (of which their emerging identity as a student was a part) were interdependent in myriad ways such that they gave rise to patterns of time use in which leisure emerged as a central aspect of their day-to-day lives. Furthermore, within leisure this also meant that alcohol was woven into their leisure time through, in particular, socializing with friends. Moreover, leisure increasingly seemed to become somewhat more mundane and home-based as they moved into the second year of their degree programmes, with screen time (especially watching TV and DVDs) tending to dominate time use. Differences across sub-groups were evident, particularly in relation to males and females and residential status. However, overall there seemed to be somewhat of a homogenising process as student life unfolded, which gave rise to normative patterns of time use. The study raised a number of implications for higher education policy.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background and rationale

Attending university is a significant aspect of an increasing number of young people's life-course transitions including the 'prolongation of the youth life-stage' (Roberts, 2006). Indeed for some students, university can be an important influence in how they develop their personal identities, particularly through their leisure consumption (Roberts, 2006). In this regard, previous findings (see, for example, Furlong, 2013; Holdsworth; 2006, 2008; Reay, David & Ball, 2005) suggest that although students are often categorized as one homogeneous group, there can be distinct differences in the day-to-day lives of sub-groups of students based on their sex, age, term-time residential status (i.e. do they live in the parental home [PH], or, are they living in a non- parental home [NPH] while studying, particularly, university managed accommodation), and social-class. These differences have become more marked with the widening participation of participation in higher education (HE) in recent decades and it is in this context in that the present study is located.

The practice of providing students in somewhere to live while they study has been commonplace in the UK since medieval times (Silver, 2004). The model of a 'student community' in which resident students were regulated by the authority of the university, developed into the collegiate system, and these colleges became the vehicle for behavioural control and discipline (Silver, 2004). Therefore universities have long been associated with the non-academic aspects of student life and development, alongside the more academic pursuits providing a broad

student experience and creating a distinct 'university experience' (Holdsworth, 2009). Residence has subsequently developed into something of a lifestyle choice as one aspect of how young people decide to 'do' university (Holdsworth, 2009; Leathwood & O'Connell, 2003; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005; Roberts, 2009; Silver, 2004). In this regard, it is generally the case that universities only guarantee to provide term-time accommodation to prospective first year students and this tends to be oversubscribed to the point where institutions sometimes require additional capacity from the private-rented sector. A corollary of the policy of housing as many first-year students in university accommodation during their first year of study is the concentration of young students (mainly 18-21 years) in university accommodation and often 'on campus'.

At the same time, the evident increases in university students recruited locally that has been associated with the expansion of HE in the UK, has resulted in concomitant increases in students who continue to live in the parental home while pursuing their studies. This is a particularly interesting development given that being a 'resident student' (i.e. living in university accommodation during term-time) for has been shown to be a particularly significant factor affecting students experience of the undergraduate process (Holdsworth, 2006; 2008; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005).

These developments in the HE sector need to be viewed in the context of a wider moral panic surrounding contemporary youth lifestyles. One aspect of young people's lives that has received extensive attention from the media has been lives, their use of licit and illicit drugs, and alcohol in particular. The concomitant political concerns about young peoples' lives have given rise to a plethora of youth-

focussed policy statements (Department of Health [DH], 2004; 2005; 2007). The message that is consistently reiterated in both government policy initiatives and by public health groups is that excessive alcohol consumption, smoking or using illicit drugs have immediate and long-term implications for the health, well-being and development of young people (DH, 2004; 2005; 2007). All policies and initiatives have tended to have common goals; namely, to encourage young people (broadly those in the 18-25 age category) to drink 'sensibly', curb their smoking and improve their knowledge regarding the harmful consequences of drug use. This, it is argued, will reduce the risk over the life-course of the negative consequences associated with these activities (DH, 2004; 2005; 2007).

However, findings from studies focussed on the drug-oriented aspect of youngsters' leisure careers illustrates that in some social contexts they continue to consume alcohol in excess of the guidelines suggested for sensible drinking (DH, 2007; John and Alwyn, 2010; The Institute for Alcohol Studies [IAS], 2000; Warwick, Chase, Spencer, Ingold & Aggleton, 2009). Moreover, research suggests that although overall alcohol consumption among young people has fallen in recent years (Institute of Alcohol Studies [IAS], 2000, 2010), those who do drink, do so more frequently and in greater quantities (Measham & Ostergaard, 2009; Measham, 2008; Seaman & Ikegwuonu, 2010). Furthermore, determined drunkenness via activities such as so-called 'pre-loading' (drinking alcohol purchased from off-licensed outlets before going out) have also been observed as a rising trend, which can increase an individual's overall alcohol consumption per drinking episode (Hughes, Anderson, Morleo & Bellis, 2007). In this regard, it is noteworthy that youngsters of university (age 18–25 year olds) tend to have the

highest consumption rates of alcohol, tobacco and illicit drugs (Aldridge, Measham & Williams, 2011; John & Alwyn, 2010; Robinson & Harris, 2009).

However, it is also noteworthy that findings from youth research suggest that health outcomes (particularly longer-term) tend not to be the primary concern of young people, whereas social factors – such as socializing with friends and peers, social desirability, the quest for excitement, and more confidence in potential sexual encounters – do tend to shape their leisure activities and subsequent behaviours (Beasley, Hackett & Maxwell, 2004; Kolind, 2011; Orford, Krishnan, Balaam, Everitt & Van De Graff, 2004).

University, with its potential for living independently (away from the parental home) with a large number of same-age peers with similar leisure interests provides a context for students to experiment with a range of leisure choices in the creation of their own particular leisure lifestyles. In this regard, youth transitions into and through HE – and developments in their patterns of leisure, in particular – need to be viewed as processual, whereby shifting networks or interdependencies have the potential to influence students' time use, their leisure lifestyles, and, their patterns of drinking (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Hughes, 2003; John & Alwyn, 2010; Penny & Armstrong-Hallam, 2010).

The present study aims to explore the leisure lives of university students in the 21st century. However, before outlining the structure of this thesis and delving deeper into the existing literature on youths in general and students in particular, it is important to define the key terms and ideas upon which the study is based:

youth as a life-stage and how leisure can be conceptualized through young people's time use.

1.2 Defining youth

Although youth can be a concept that is difficult to define, there is some consensus among sociologists that youth is 'a socially constructed intermediary phase that stands between childhood and adulthood' (Furlong, 2013: 1). Therefore, it cannot be defined 'as a stage that can be tied to specific age ranges, nor can its end point be linked to specific activities, such as taking up paid work or having sexual relations' (Furlong, 2013, p. 1). Instead, youth is more adequately conceptualized as a 'period of semi-dependence that falls between the full dependency that characterizes childhood and the independence of adulthood' (Furlong, 2013, p. 3).

Moreover, the last 40 years has witnessed modification of the youth life-stage in most Western countries, and many other countries have, to a greater or lesser extent mirrored the West in how youth is characterized. First, youth is commonly prolonged; there are, however, large variations in how long it lasts. Second, some of the youth life-stage transitions have been destandardized, with the result that there is no longer a specific, 'normal' sequence. Third, a corollary is that these developments have increasingly led to the individualization of youth biographies (Roberts, in press) – i.e. a trend towards each person having a unique biography in the sense that 'each individual's chain of experiences is a unique series' (Roberts, 2009: 75). These points notwithstanding, any inference of a straightforward linear transition from child to adult is both simplistic and problematic.

Recent debates centered on conceptualizing youth in terms of either 'transitional' or 'generational' frameworks in which youngsters experience youth, construct meaning in their lives and assume more adult-like identities create a false dichotomy (Furlong, Woodman and Wyn, 2011; Roberts, 2007). Some authors have previously contended that framing youth within a sociological framework of generation is preferable because the researcher is compelled to understand youngsters within their milieu. The main arguments here are that; (i) the focus on transitional processes is too deterministic and implies a linear pathway to adulthood; (ii) youth transitions are implicitly linked to a biological and/or psychosocial state between childhood and adulthood (therefore, the individual's biography is somehow 'unfinished' or incomplete); and, (iii) transitional processes neglect to account for generational shifts in youth cultures based on social, economic and political changes over time and how youngsters construct meaning and experience youth within each generation (Wyn & Woodman, 2006).

However, both frameworks are inextricably linked. For example, Roberts (2007: 265), highlights a present-day disorderliness to youth transitions and notes:

> … young people's lives do not always move forward in an uncomplicated way – straight from full-time education into stable full-time occupational careers, and from singleton status to coupledom to marriage, for example. There is considerable back-tracking - back to the parental home following higher education, back to unemployment following training schemes, back to education following experiences in the labour market.

Clearly, the social, economic and political milieu in 2015 is different from the post-war and subsequent generations and the experiences of many young people are as a consequence, different (new technologies, de-indusrialization and education, for example). However, the social processes underpinning youth (such as increasing self-responsibility and independence from parents, greater importance placed upon friends and peers and the construction of more adult-like identities) transcend a generational approach (Roberts, 2007).

The present study focusses on the transitional dimensions while being informed by recent debates regarding generations, specifically referring to 'youth's new condition' in Chapter 2. For the purpose of the present study, youth is defined as a life-stage that can be broadly epitomized in chronological terms as the latter teenage years, with some latitude towards the upper end to include post-teen transitions into young adulthood. Therefore youth is viewed as a period of transition ranging from approximately 16 to 25 years of age. As Roberts (2008: 12) observes, '[T]he virtue of a transitional, life-stage conception of youth is that it reflects the reality of young peoples' lives – forever changing'.

1.3 Defining leisure through the concept of time

According to Roberts (2006), the two broad ways of defining leisure are either as a residue of time or as an experience. While the latter is concerned with the more subjective experience of leisure (i.e. in terms of what may or may not constitute a 'quality experience'), this study utilizes the former definition. Therefore, leisure is, for the present study, conceptualized as residual time outside of work, formal university taught sessions (such as lecture and seminars), self-directed study, and what might be considered more mundane activities, such as domestic

responsibilities, personal hygiene and family commitments. The benefits of conceptualizing leisure in this way are two-fold: First, the activities within this definition are measurable (indeed, patterns of leisure activities can be measured comparatively, and a meaningful examination of students' day-to-day time use can be undertaken); and, second, it coincides with (young) people's everyday usage and understanding of the term.

Time use studies and the use of diaries are a well-documented means of collecting precise data on the daily lives of the diarist. Indeed, the time use diary is a more valid and reliable instrument than many self-report questionnaires (Bryman, 2012; Center for Time Use research [CTUR], 2013). Moreover, time use diaries provide the researcher with a narrative or 'story' of the diarists' day-to-day lives, and thereby, a holistic understanding of their lives in the round.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

The premise for Chapter 1 of this thesis was to 'set the scene' in terms of the background to the research, and thereby, provide a rationale for the study. From the outset, understanding students' leisure lives in the broader context of their lives was paramount to contextualizing their relationship with alcohol. Subsequently, Chapter 2 sets out to do two things. First it provides a critical review of the existing literature, outlining key research findings and debates concerning aspects of young peoples' lives, such as the changing nature of 'youth's new condition' and the destandardization of the life-course; widening participation in HE; and (un)employment. Moreover, there is a detailed review of research on university students – and youth more widely – with specific reference to aspects

of their leisure repertoires such as: their use of new technologies; sport and physical activity and drug-oriented leisure. The second aim of Chapter 2 is to present the theoretical concepts that informed the study and outlines why they might more adequately contribute to a meaningful understanding of students' time use and their leisure lives.

Chapter 3 focuses on methodology and methods and outlines the research process and explains the decisions made to conduct the research. The next four chapters present the quantitative findings. Chapters 4–6 present the findings from the study. More specifically, Chapter 4 presents the time-use data from the student panel in their first year at university, in terms of their characteristics and patterns of overall time use. Chapter 5 then illustrates how these patterns of time use developed in their second year at university. Next, Chapter 6 provides a more detailed analysis of students' leisure activities *per se*, and explores different sub-groups of students based on their sex, age, term-time residential status and social-class. Chapter 7 illustrates how these sub-groups of students' patterns of leisure time developed in their second year. Central to the aims and objectives of this study was to understand the 'reality' of student drinking. Thus, Chapter 8 provides the findings from a more detailed analysis of 'drinking alcohol' among the students, and introduces additional fields such as their location and who they were with whilst drinking. The quantitative findings informed the next phase of the study, and contributed to notable topics for discussion: focus groups were used to explore the underlying social processes that might shape students time use. Chapter 9 presents the findings, as a set of analytical themes derived from the students' views regarding their transitions to university and examines students in their social networks. Chapter 10 illustrates the findings from the students and

their transitions to second year, focusing on both continuity and change in their lives when compared with their first year.

The sociological significance of all the findings in this thesis are discussed in Chapter 11, and therein, from the application of previously outlined theoretical concepts provide the basis of a sociological explanation of students' day-to-day lives in the round, particularly, their leisure lives and specifically their relationship with alcohol. Drawing on the sociological processes of socialization and habitus formation, students' predispositions for particular leisure activities, particularly drinking alcohol can be traced back through the life-course to their adolescence and early childhood experiences. The conclusion, Chapter 12, reflects further upon the findings and explains why students' patterns of time use are unique from those of non-students and youth more widely, in that, they find themselves in a context where their available time is relatively unprescribed compared with their lives prior to university, and the subsequent implications this can have on their leisure lives. In addition, the notion of the 'stereotypical student' is challenged in this chapter, as patterns of time use among students differs according to their characteristics such as sex, age, term-time residential status and social-class, but, are also shaped by unfolding social networks and the desire to construct both individual and collective preferred identities The thesis concludes with reflections on limitations of the research and how this study might inform future research.

Chapter 2

Young people, university and leisure lifestyles

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an outline of the major social processes and developments highlighted in existing research on youth, in general, and university students, in particular, as well as the key sociological concepts employed in making sense of these processes and developments. Adopting a broadly sociological perspective, it is based on the premise that understanding students' university lives and their leisure lives especially requires contextualizing within the condition of youth in the early twenty-first century.

The chapter consists of two main sections. The first section provides an overview of youth and university students. More specifically, it focuses on: (i) conceptualizing youth as a life-stage, and examining the underlying processes which have shaped its destandardization; (ii) youth and higher education (HE); (iii) youth cultures and lifestyles; and (iv) aspects of youth leisure including: use of media (screen-time); alcohol, tobacco and drugs; and sport. The second part, entitled Explaining university students' lives, summarizes the main theoretical concepts employed in analyses of university students' behaviours, in particular, and youth lifestyles, more generally. Prominent among these are the concepts of: (i) identity; (ii) socialization and habitus; (iii) capital and (iv) moral panic.

2.2 Youth as a life-stage

The relationship between age and participation in various leisure activities is well documented. In the main, young people's leisure lifestyles tend to be more

dynamic and less stable than adults. These factors and the correlation between age and leisure are observed in the specific leisure activities young people tend to participate in, the amount of time they spend on leisure overall and the range of different leisure activities (or leisure repertoires*)* in which they participate (Roberts, 2008, 2009, 2011b). Examples include: participation in sporting activities; consumption of media; consumption of music and socializing outside the home.

In the past, sociologists tended to refer to the 'life-cycle. In their famous study, *Leisure and the family life-cycle*, Rhona and Robert Rapoport (1975) argued, that young people undergoing transition from childhood to adult (i.e. youth), were concerned with constructing their own self-identities within their families and friendship groups. Indeed, youth was said to be a period for their exploration, forming relationships and the development of interests (Roberts, 2013). The experience of life-cycle transitions tended to be more predictable in the pre-1970s due to factors including: an abundance of paid work and less diversity in the structure of the family. This created a sense of less risk and a person's transition through each stage of the life-cycle could be more easily predicted, dependent of course, on social divisions such as gender and social class (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007).

However, since the 1970s, the experience of youth and subsequent youth leisure behaviours in the UK have been shaped by both macro-sociological factors (such as de-industrialization and globalization), and micro-sociological factors (such as changes in the family and the role of women in the home and workplace) (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Green, 2010; Roberts, 2008; Roberts, Pollack, Tholen, &

Tarknishvili, 2009a). Indeed, contemporary thinkers suggest it is currently more appropriate to refer to a life-course comprised of life-stages rather than a life-cycle, because generational changes in the life-cycle have been quite substantial (Roberts, 2011a, 2013). For example, 'youth has been extended as a result of young people remaining longer in education, and marrying and becoming parents at later stages than formerly' (Green, 2010, p. 148). Put more simply, youth in late modernity is not the same as youth at the height of modernity, or youth in pre-industrial times (Jones, 2009, p. 4). Therefore, youth is best conceptualized as part of a life-course 'composed of successive identifiable life stages – childhood, youth, adulthood and senior citizenship, for example', which are characteristically associated with 'major status passages marked by "life events" such as leaving full-time education, starting work, marriage and retirement' (Green, 2010, p. 148).

These life events in particular, have come under increased scrutiny from sociologists in recent times, and a 'loosening of the social divisions of age' has been observed in modern industrialized societies. Indeed, the age at which young people start work, marry and have children changed for many young people, and one outcome is transitions from youth to adulthood are deemed more risky (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Roberts, Pollack, et al., 2009a), and 'the chronological ages when youth begins and ends have varied greatly by time and place, and both the beginnings and the ends are 'fuzzy' in all modern societies' (Roberts, 2009, p. 12).

2.3 The destandardization of the life-course and 'youth's new condition'

The wider economic and social forces that have been destabilizing employment, gender and age roles have substantially altered the life-stage of youth in a number of ways (Hendry et al., 2002). First, youth as a life-stage has been prolonged, with an increasing number of young people spending longer in full-time education to obtain the necessary academic credentials that contemporary employers require, which has consequentially resulted in delays in youth's transitions into the labour market (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Green, 2010; Roberts, 2008). For many young people, a consequence of spending longer in education is a prolonged dependence on their families. For example, the delay in adopting responsibilities once traditionally associated with being an adult (employment, marriage, parenthood and in particular setting–up home), has contributed to a 'boomerang generation' as youngsters are increasingly dependent on their parents for longer (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Green, 2010; Haycock, 2014; Hendry et al., 2002; Roberts, 2008). This is perhaps unsurprising, considering current levels of youth unemployment – 16.9 per cent for 16-24 year olds (Mirza-Davies, 2015), the high cost of housing, and the fact that some 27 per cent of university students return to their parental home as unemployed graduates (Coward, 2011; Office for National statistics, 2009; Stone, Berrington, & Falkingham, 2011).

Second, young people's biographies have become more individualized as their experiences become increasingly varied, in work, leisure and particularly in post-compulsory education and the social networks they form in these places (Roberts, 2008; Schizzerrotto & Lucchini, 2002). The expansion of further and particularly HE, since the early 1990s, increased the movement of young people away from the family home to attend non-local schools, colleges and universities

(Holdsworth, 2009; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005; Roberts, 2008, p. 76). In addition, when young people try to enter the labour market they often find themselves under-employed. They tend to be 'working less than continuously, often for less than full-time hours when they are in work, and for less than full adult salaries' (Roberts, 2008, p. 198). Moreover, 'their typical jobs are well beneath the levels for which they are qualified' (Roberts, 2008, p. 199). One repercussion of this process is 'there are no longer "normal" biographies; that is, typical sequences in the transition from youth to adulthood, in contemporary societies' (Schizzerrotto & Lucchini, 2002).

Third, as a result of the factors outlined above, young people's futures are increasingly uncertain (Roberts, 2009; Roberts, Pollack, et al., 2009a). The increase in flexible working practices (agency working, part-time hours, short-term and zero-hours contracts), married women returners, students and migrant workers has compounded uncertainty in the workplace by both increasing the number of available workers and intensifying competition for decent work opportunities for young people (Green, 2010; Roberts, 2008, 2009).

Fourth, and as an upshot of the increased uncertainty about their futures, and set of risks young people find themselves having to negotiate, young people have a more pronounced sense of both uncertainty, and responsibility for their current and future situations (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Roberts, 2009).

These four features are encapsulated in what Roberts (2009) terms as 'youth's new condition' in which – as a life-stage – youth has become both destandardized and more prolonged. This 'prolongation of the youth life-stage' illustrates how the

'boundaries between life-stages and ages are not fixed by objective criteria (such as chronological age) but, rather, are dependent upon the social, political and economic conditions at any one time' (Green, 2010, p. 21).

2.4 Social divisions among youth

Notwithstanding this process of destandardization of the life-course and the resultant new condition of youth, social markers such as educational background, ethnicity, gender and social class continue to shape young people's future life chances (Roberts, 2009, p. 89), and are as significant today as they were previously. However, the same defining features of youth's new condition, combined with wider social and economic forces have increased both the variety, and diversity of configurations in which young people come together, albeit they are less likely to be aware than previous generations of these shared similarities (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Roberts, 2009). The propensity for young people's biographies, and lives to become increasingly individualized can be directly related to changes in post-compulsory education (particularly the expansion of HE), more flexible employment practices (e.g. the increase in part-time jobs), expansion of the retail and services sector (including 24 hour working and 7 day shift patterns), and the continuing trend of commodification (Green, 2010, p. 39), of goods and services (of which young people are both consumers and producers), beyond food, clothes, housing and transport, to aspects of leisure such as conversation through new technologies, social media, socializing and sport and physical activity (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Green, 2010). Some of these implications for youth are examined in greater detail throughout the remainder of this chapter.

2.5 Youth and higher education

Successive UK governments have responded to increasing social and economic pressures on young people from globalization and de-industrialization, by introducing various youth employment training schemes during the late 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, although none of these have been as popular with young people as post-compulsory education, specifically HE (Roberts, 2008). Indeed, since the 1980s, the HE sector has expanded rapidly, particularly during the 1990s with the introduction of the UK Government's target of 50 per cent of all those aged between 18 and 30 entering HE by 2010 (Department for Education and Skills [DFES], 2003). Further to increasing young peoples' participation in HE the policy aimed to target groups who were under-represented within HE (so-called 'widening participation'). This was predicated on the way in which pathways to HE were unfairly constricted for particular social groups, defined by social class, educational background or ethnicity, and that HE remained an important gateway for future life chances and good quality employment for young people in the UK (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Reay, David, & Ball, 2005). In essence, young people from all backgrounds were encouraged to go to university and obtain a degree, which would act as a 'passport' to better career prospects, and increase diversity among the student population, which was predominantly white and middle-class (Leathwood & O'Connell, 2003; Reay et al., 2005). Indeed, while headline statistics show the proportion of university graduates in the UK population has continued to increase from 17 per cent in 1992 to 38 per cent in 2013 (Office for National statistics [ONS], 2013b), persistent inequalities remain for those entering HE among some social groups. Indeed, some data show that among the youth population, participation rates are higher for young women (42 per cent), compared with young men (34 per cent), and the gap between them has widened

steadily since the 1990s (Roulston, 2010). This 'gender gap' among youth is exacerbated among the socially disadvantaged and is observed in data derived from measures such as the Higher Education Funding Council for England [HEFCE]'s 'Participation of Local Areas' (POLAR), and use of free school meals (FSM) as markers for social deprivation and participation in HE (Denscombe, 2010; Roulston, 2010). Data shows a consistent pattern of higher participation in HE among more advantaged young people compared with the disadvantaged, with almost double the proportion of young people on FSM (39 per cent) entering HE compared with those not on FSM (21 per cent). These data are specifically for England, and while there are regional variations (Denscombe, 2010), the pattern of participation is consistent. For example, there were similar patterns found in available data (2012/13 intake) based on the ages of students, with 17 per cent of 18 year olds and 23 per cent of 19 year olds from disadvantaged backgrounds entering HE. This compares with 48 per cent of 18 year olds and 60 per cent of 19 year olds from advantaged backgrounds in the same period (Universities UK [UUK], 2014). In terms of ethnicity and participation, 78 per cent of those who entered HE in 2012/13 who described themselves as white, 7 per cent as black, 9 per cent as Asian, 4 per cent as other and 2 per cent missing data or unknown (ONS, 2013a; UUK, 2014). While the increases among these ethnic categories during the 2012/13 intake were larger compared with white students, they remained under-represented as constituent groups within the overall student population (UUK, 2014). Indeed, social markers were also relevant for how some institutions allocated accommodation to their new intake. For example, at the university studied by Wilson (2010), common practice was to house international students together, and UK domiciled students were housed according to sex,

either in separate sex houses or (in the case of large residential halls), separate floors (Wilson, 2010).

In terms of young people's socio-economic background, previous research findings showed that social-class boundaries were evident both institutionally (in terms of the *type* of institution), and at an individual student level (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Leathwood & O'Connell, 2003; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005), in terms of where students choose whether or not to attend a local university. This has meant that some institutions (for example, the seven 'ancient universities' in the UK) have remained the preserve of the middle-classes, whilst the newer institutions, including the most recent (post-1992), have developed a more diverse population of students. Moreover, the fact that those from working-class backgrounds are still under-represented (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Holdsworth, 2006; Shildrick, Blackman, & MacDonald, 2009). Recent statistics demonstrate that those students from NS-SEC classes 4, 5, 6 and 7 participate at lower rates at universities such as Cambridge (12.6 per cent) and Durham (16.8 per cent) compared with some post-92 institutions, such as the institution in this study (40.0 per cent) and a neighbouring institution that was also post-92 (44.7 per cent) (Higher Education Statistics Agency [HESA], 2011).

Research findings suggest that more advantaged younger students (i.e. those from middle-class backgrounds), were more likely to 'go away' to university and tended to reside on, or near to campus in university managed accommodation. Conversely, younger students from working-class backgrounds were more likely to choose an institution closer to home and remain either living with parents or in their own homes (Holdsworth, 2008; Leathwood & O'Connell, 2003; Patiniotis &

Holdsworth, 2005). Mature students also tended to choose their local institution for a variety of reasons including economic (centered around flexibility in employment or childcare), or because of strong familial ties within their locality, that they valued (Holdsworth, 2006, 2009). Common among these studies into students' choices or their experiences of university, was how social class could have an impact on where some students were more likely to study (in terms of their choice of university), or indeed, whether or not they would remain local or go away to study at an institution not in their city (Holdsworth, 2006, 2008; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005; Shildrick et al., 2009).

What these and other studies show consistently is that on the surface, there has been both an increase in the number of students *per se* and an increase in participation in HE from social groups who have, in the past, been either excluded or under-represented within the student population. However, more detailed analysis shows inequalities in access to HE among some social groups has remained, and that social markers continue to be not only a predictor for whether or not young people enter HE, but the type of institution they are most likely to apply to, and be accepted at (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007).

2.6 Youth and (un)employment

Widening participation in HE has not been without some unintended outcomes. For example, according to Roberts (2009), in 2004 over 300,000 new university graduates competed for around 15,000 elite jobs. Therefore, newly-qualified graduates with high career expectations, found increased competition and heavy congestion at the ports of entry to attractive careers' (Roberts, 2009, p. 71) – a situation that has only been exacerbated by the economic problems across Europe

triggered by the global collapse of financial markets in 2008. Indeed, recent data show youth unemployment in the UK in the region of 709,000 or (20.5 per cent), although these data exclude those in full-time education and/or government training courses (i.e. not in education, employment or training schemes – so-called 'NEETS' (Rhodes, 2012).

These challenges for today's youth in finding regular good quality employment are inextricably linked with the destandardization of the life-course and continual broad shifts in occupational structure and factors such as globalization (Mirza-Davies, 2015). Moreover, the importance currently placed on HE in acquiring the credentials necessary to participate in the work arena and continued Government emphasis on widening participation would seem to suggest only further congestion for the best jobs (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Roberts, 2009; UUK, 2014).

One consequence of deindustrialization and the decline in permanent full-time employment is the emergence of more part-time jobs in the services sector (particularly in hospitality and retail), specifically zero-hours or at least flexible working hours contracts (Mirza-Davies, 2015). Moreover, there is propensity for an increasing number of full-time university students (mainly those from working-class backgrounds) to take up these part-time, often seasonal roles within a more casual work arena (Reay et al., 2005). Indeed, some students choose to work a considerable number of part-time hours around their full-time university courses to subsidize their tuition and/or accommodation fees and supplement a more desirable student lifestyle (DFES, 2003; Reay, Crozier, & Clayton, 2010). Indeed, one recent UK study found 45 per cent of students worked in a part-time capacity,

32 per cent worked part-time during term-time and almost 13 per cent tended to work full-time hours during their holidays (ONS, 2013b).

This upward trend in some students taking on more hours of part-time paid employment coincides with a downward trend among university students spending considerably fewer hours on their studies outside of their formal teaching contact hours (Denscombe, 2010; Reay et al., 2010). Indeed, a developing trend of disparity between the number of hours universities expect of students outside of lectures and seminars, and the number of hours students report to have spent studying has been observed in the findings of several studies (Denscombe, 2010; Innis & Shaw, 1997; Reay et al., 2010). The impact on students' academic performance from concomitant activities in paid-work is difficult to ascertain, although clearly, the time available to them to study and/or engage in other activities such as leisure is inevitably squeezed (Christie, Tett, Cree, Hounsell, & McCune, 2008; Roulston, 2010).

The value of a university degree in monetary terms has been estimated to equate to a premium on earnings over a lifetime of £168,000 for men and £252,000 for women (UUK, 2014, p. 4). Therefore, it is not surprising that many young people in work choose to acquire academic credentials when the perceived benefits are grounded in these economic data. Indeed, the perceived benefits of a university degree are also reflected in employment data for new graduates, who are more likely to be employed (87 per cent) compared with youngsters educated to A-Level standard (83 per cent), or those educated to GCSE A*-C standard (76 per cent) or indeed, for those with no qualifications (47 per cent were in employment) (ONS, 2013a). Moreover, graduates were less likely to be unemployed (4 per cent)

compared with those educated to A-Level standard (5 per cent), or those with GCSE grades A*-C (8 per cent) or those with no qualifications (16 per cent) (ONS, 2013a).

Notwithstanding the economic benefits of a university degree, and the increased chances of good quality employment, there is the pervasive reality that those students from middle-class backgrounds achieve disproportionately better employment-related benefits from their academic achievements. Indeed, these students tend to receive the greatest amount of parental support during their childhood, reflected in the type of institution they are likely to attend, and the nature of the course they undertake (Hartas, 2014; Reay, 2001; Reay et al., 2005). Conversely, the reality for students from less advantaged or working-class backgrounds is less certainty about both their projected academic and employment trajectories, and an increased likelihood they will undertake less prestigious courses, at less prestigious institutions, and encounter more fragmented employment careers (Green, 2010, p. 145).

Fragmented employment careers are an increasingly common feature in the arena of work, but specifically for youngsters with the lowest levels of academic achievement. Moreover, this can be compounded by regional deprivation, that in some cases, lies at the very heart of normative generational (un)employment, and opportunities for young people to build better lives (Shildrick, Macdonald, Webster, & Garthwaite, 2012; UUK, 2014). Indeed, findings from some of the most deprived areas in the UK (e.g. Glasgow and Teesside) show it is less-educated youngsters who bear the brunt of uncertainty in employment. Moreover, they are more likely to be employed in low paid, poor and insecure work, and this

adds to their disadvantage – an experience similarly reproduced at varying levels across the working-class (Shildrick & Macdonald, 2013; Shildrick et al., 2012; UUK, 2014).

The upshot is that many disadvantaged young people find themselves in cycles of (un)employment or 'low-pay-no-pay' in jobs or employment contracts that are increasingly casual, and become somewhat marginalized by their economic instability. In essence, their disadvantage is for some, the barrier to better employment or academic prospects, and their experience within the labour market is blighted by continual struggle (Inui, 2009; Shildrick et al., 2012).

The following sections of this chapter will present a detailed review of thinking based around aspects of youth cultures and lifestyles, specifically leisure. Indeed, recent controversies surrounding specific leisure activities are examined.

2.7 Youth and new media technologies

There has been a growing concern in some quarters regarding the increasing sedentary nature of young people's leisure lives, often espoused in commentaries on youngsters' uses of new media, facilitated by modern technologies (Buckingham, 2008; Livingstone, 2002; Roberts, 2004). According to Smith (2006), concern has developed generationally alongside the developments in technology, particularly in terms of how the concern is expressed. For example, the advent of mass access to television in the 1960s witnessed the emergence of concern over a so-called 'TV generation' of young people. This has developed over the decades: the 1970s witnessed a similar concern about – 'the video generation'; 1980s – 'the Nintendo generation'; 1990s 'the internet generation';

2000s 'the digital generation'. Livingstone (2002), refers to this as 'historical amnesia' as each generation normalizes a new media following a period of 'moral panic'. This concept is examined further in section 2.17 below.

Findings from time use studies consistently indicate that watching TV forms the bulk of young people's sedentary activities. In a recent study of Spanish youngsters, Serrano-Sanchez et al. (2011) found that, most youngsters (61.6 per cent) were watching TV for 2 hours or less per day, (boys 65.9 per cent and girls 57.5 per cent). However, these authors did not break the week down into days. This assumes that TV viewing is consistent throughout the week. What is evident from other studies – including a meta-analysis by Marshall et al., (2006), is how TV usage and other sedentary activities fluctuate throughout the week, with the highest number of TV hours watched being reported during the weekend (168.1 hours and 149.5 hours for boys and girls respectively), compared with a lower week-day usage of (118.5 hours and 111.9 hours respectively) (Biddle, Gorely, Marshall, & Cameron, 2009; Marshall et al., 2006). The amount of time young people spend watching TV is consistent in US and European data, which also reports watching TV as the single largest activity in young people's media use. Although it is the largest component of their total screen time it has remained relatively stable as an activity *per se* for youngsters with access to a TV over the last 50 years (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Marshall et al., 2006; Osterbacka & Zick, 2009; Serrano-Sanchez et al., 2011).

While watching TV is a universal activity for young people, viewing patterns are influenced by social class. For example, UK studies show that those youngsters from working-class families tend to watch more TV than those from the middle

and professional classes, which is also a consistent finding across many international studies (Gorely, Marshall, & Biddle, 2004; Le Roux, Rouanet, Savage, & Warde, 2008; Livingstone, 2002; Marshall et al., 2006). UK data shows that in terms of watching more than 5 hours of TV per week, those from professional classes (8.4 per cent) reported lower levels than those from working classes (33.4 per cent) (Le Roux et al., 2008). Furthermore, findings tended to show differences in young people's TV viewing patterns also being dependent on their social class. For example, in terms of news or current affairs programmes, there was a social class gradient in viewing figures: working class (13.8 per cent); intermediate class (18.9 per cent) and professional class (24.1 per cent). This gradient was inverted where soap operas were concerned: working class (21.5 per cent); intermediate class (15.7 per cent) and professional class (10.4 per cent) (Le Roux et al., 2008).

More recently, studies have consistently shown that young people tend to use computers and video games in conjunction with watching TV. This adds to the amount of total screen-time within their leisure lives (British Heart Foundation [BHF], 2000, 2004, 2009). Moreover, these on-line lifestyles not only expose youngsters to a range of 'risks', as Buckingham noted:

> From a wide range of negative physical and psychological consequences that derive from their engagement with technology. Like television, digital media are seen to be responsible for a litany of social ills including, addiction, antisocial behaviour, educational underachievement, commercial exploitation and stunted imaginations, and the list goes on (Buckingham, 2008, p. 13).

However, these criticisms on (inter)dependencies between young people, their friends and peers, and their increased use of screen-based technologies, particularly in the mainstream media, are often the result of viewing youngsters through an 'adult gaze', and a sense of moral panic can sometimes ensue (Jones, 2009). Indeed, the speed of technical progress, alongside the ubiquity and portability of 'smart products' has enabled continuous connectivity and access to friends, peers and family (Buckingham, 2008; Livingstone, 2002). Indeed, some argue that new technologies are a 'force of liberation' for young people, affording them more creativity and innovation in the ways in which they communicate and construct their preferred identities (Buckingham, 2008; Livingstone, 2002).

A number of studies have investigated what is termed 'total screen-time' (TV, computer and video games). Excluding watching TV, Serrano-Sanchez (2011) found, 15 per cent of youngsters are using a computer for more than 2 hours a day, with no significant gender differences (Serrano-Sanchez et al., 2011). However, as with watching TV, activities that make up 'total screen-time' also fluctuate throughout the week. UK data shows that for some using a computer takes up a relatively small part of the day with boys reporting 12.7 minutes on a week-day compared to girls (16.2 minutes). This increases at weekends (22 minutes and 18.8 minutes) for boys and girls respectively (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Marshall et al., 2006). By contrast, there are noted sex differences in video gaming, for which 4 per cent of youngsters engaged in for more than 2 hours per day (7.1 per cent of boys and 1.1 per cent of girls) (Serrano-Sanchez et al., 2011). UK time use data also showed that on a week-day, boys (27.3 minutes) played more than girls (3.6 minutes), and this differential widened at the weekend (57.9

minutes and 6.1 minutes for boys and girls respectively) (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Marshall et al., 2006).

However, the tendency in many studies to focus on TV or video games as a single behaviour can have limitations, not least because young people's leisure lives tend to be multifaceted and increasingly complex (Scully, Dixon, White, & Beckmann, 2007; Smith, 2006; Zimmerman & Bell, 2010). For example, young people use their computers to read on-line books/resources increasingly, rather than buy paper/hardbacks, chat with their friends on-line and learn remotely, which are relatively recent developments and represent how youngsters apportion their time interacting with their social world (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Biddle, Gorely, & Stensel, 2004; Marshall et al., 2006). In short, media use encompasses all forms of media use, new and old and, for most young people, total screen-time has remained relatively stable. However, the diversity of media oriented activities that comprise total screen-time has changed, and is contingent upon technological advances and brand identity that appeal to how youngsters construct their leisure identities and interact with each other in the milieu.

One consequence resulting from the advances in new technologies and growing commercialization of leisure is how young people consume music. Mass consumption of popular music has been synonymous with being young, often linked with fashion and youth cultures, such as the 'Mods and Rockers' in the 1960s, counter-cultures such as 'Punk rock' in the 1970s and 'clubbing' in the 1990s (Bennett, 2002, 2005; Cohen, 1972). However, the diversity in 'styles' of music has markedly increased, such that young people can select from a wider range, including, 'drum and bass, retro, techno, metal, gothic, acid, house/dance

compilations, reggae and so on' (Roberts, 2004, p. 134). This diversification of musical styles has been mirrored by the development of a wide range of formats and contexts for listening to music. These are increasingly more individualized and personalized compared with previous generations of youngsters, facilitated by individualized personal musical products, such as the 'Sony Walkman' in the 1980s and, more recently, the iPod and other MP3 players which all provide young people with instant access to a large range of styles of music, to suit any particular social context they find themselves in (Bennett, 2002, 2005; Bull, 2005; Smith, 2006). Moreover, listening to music is not only an activity *per se*; it is also used as a means of defining self-image or constructing a preferred identity, and many young people discuss musical 'styles' or brands they like as a tool to get to know people. Judgments about an individual's characteristics and behaviours are often inferred from what music people listen to and how this music is accessed (Leung & Kier, 2010; Rentfrow & Gosling, 2003, 2006).

In terms of describing the characteristics of young people's listening habits, studies reveal distinct age and gender influences on their patterns of listening. For example, twice as many girls listen to music than boys, and of those who do listen, girls spend around 90 minutes a day compared with 60 minutes for boys. Both genders listen to music for longer at weekends compared with week-days, and both listen to music more as they progress through adolescence, with 15-17 year olds listening up to 2 hours per day (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Livingstone, 2002, p. 61). Like TV, music is a both ubiquitous and significant theme in young people's leisure lifestyles, although it also acts as a backdrop in many different social contexts, such as socializing with friends at pubs, bars and night clubs or eating at restaurants. Indeed, it is difficult to contextualize a setting where music

does not form part of the backdrop of sound (such as supermarkets, cinemas, shopping-centers etc) (Rentfrow & Gosling, 2003; Tanner, Astbridge, & Wortley, 2008).

Moreover, understanding the complexities and dynamics of these social contexts is particularly important for researching the importance of the role of music or other activities as aspects of young people's leisure consumption in terms of research methodologies. For example, listening to music may be an individual's primary leisure activity, or indeed, a concomitant or secondary activity such as exercising to music. In essence, to better understand these different facets of young people's leisure, an understanding of young people in-the-round is desirable (Haycock, 2015; Smith, 2006). In terms of understanding how music is consumed by young people, qualitative studies have shown (Bennett, 2002; Tanner et al., 2008), that their propensity to use new media is a central theme in young people's leisure lifestyles, and is inextricably linked with how they construct their preferred identities in the milieu, as Livingstone (2002) noted:

> Young people are at the point in their lives where they are most motivated to construct identities, to forge new social groupings, and to negotiate alternatives to cultural meanings; in all these media play a central part (Livingstone, 2002, p. 4).

Another omnipresent aspect of young people's new media use in late modernity is social networking, and in particular, the social networking website Facebook. Originally, in 2004, a site exclusively for university students at Harvard, it rapidly expanded to other 'Ivy League' universities in the US, before being generally accessible to students in the US and UK with a valid university email account in

2005. Since 2006 Facebook has increased its user base from 448,000 in the UK to over 30 million currently (Facebook, 2012; West, Lewis, & Currie, 2009), and the site has witnessed the demise of similar social networking sites as they have failed to compete with the popularity of Facebook, particularly among young people. One interesting aspect about Facebook and the few remaining alternative social networking websites is how they are often referred to as on-line communities, or group movement (Halliday, 2011). However, data show that while users forge relationships on many levels and share experiences, photos and biographical information, these sites are more like networked individualism, and there is little evidence of shared influence, membership and activism (Reich, 2010; West et al., 2009). Facebook remains, however, an integral part of young people's leisure time, and more importantly, part of their repertoire of communication with their friends, alongside 'texting' which has been increasingly popular with developments in mobile phone technology (Skierkowski & Wood, 2012).

It would seem that social networking, particularly Facebook, as a facet of new media forms a key role in how young people express their/an identity within youth culture, create or portray identities to their peers, and how they actively seek out more or less individualized lifestyles (Ridout, Campbell, & Ellis, 2012). Evidence shows this is dependent on what they consider desirable among their peer groups, hence the emergence of trends in specific social groups (Buckingham, 2008; Livingstone, 2002). For example, Facebook users create their profile pages with a mix of biographical information based on their likes, educational attainment, employment, where they live and complement this information with photos of their lives, in other words, create an on-line biography or identity. Users can interconnect with 'friends' who can post comments on fellow friends' pages and/or

photos. Moreover, groups of users who are 'friends', whether they be on-line friends or actual friends, can organize social events by creating 'Facebook groups' thus keeping everyone with access to the 'group' aware of the event (Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007). UK youngsters (16-24 years) are the most frequent users with two-thirds checking their Facebook accounts daily. Only German youngsters came close to this level of usage (63 per cent), and those from the US demonstrated daily usage rates of 37 per cent (Wrenn, 2012).

Using a time use diary, Pempek, Yermolayeva and Calvert (2009), found that young US undergraduates mean Facebook usage was 27.93 minutes per week-day and 28.44 minutes per day at weekends. This time was typically split into more than one use over the day, so users would tend to 'dip in and out' of the site. What was particularly interesting in this study were the reasons users gave for using Facebook. Most users (93.48 per cent), used Facebook to maintain connections with other users they already knew offline. This included their old school friends, family members and new friends and acquaintances they had only just met since being at college. In other words, Facebook was not a tool used for making new friends *per se*, rather for remaining in contact with existing friends or expanding online social connections with other users once they had met offline. Moreover, 69.7 per cent of users were more likely to observe what their 'Facebook friends' were doing in a voyeuristic sense, rather than write posts or comments, suggesting a more observational role than one of interaction. The authors refer to this as 'lurking activities' (Pempek et al., 2009).

One common feature of young people's Facebook use was the posting of photographs depicting their socializing and in particular their alcohol consumption.

The portrayal of a 'heavy drinking culture' was particularly common among university students (Ridout et al., 2012). These authors, in their study of Australian university students, found an element of 'social desirability' in both photographs and subsequent comments to posted photographs with an alcohol reference. Over half the students had used a photo with an alcohol reference as their main user profile picture (holding a beer or drink, or an image mimicking drunkenness). What was particularly interesting in this study was the use of the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT), and how the scores from this were highly correlated with Facebook users 'alcohol-identity' on their Facebook profiles. Examples include joining Facebook groups like "I'm not an alcoholic, I just like to drink" or liking alcohol-related Facebook pages such as, "Stupid things you say and do when drunk" or "What sort of drunk are you?"

However, while new technologies and communication platforms might indeed facilitate a blurring of some leisure activities, such as an increasing wealth of access to a variety of media as aspects of their leisure lifestyles for those who can afford them, there is the continued reality of social exclusion for those who cannot (Buckingham, 2008; Furlong & Cartmel, 2007, p. 84; MacDonald & Shildrick, 2007; Shildrick et al., 2009). The influence of social class on new media use is grounded in young people's ability to afford/consume the products and services that enable them to have access. As with other forms of poverty or deprivation, inequalities exist, and in the context of new media, the term 'digital divide' has been used. (Livingstone & Helsper, 2007; Tufekci, Cotten, & Flow-Delwiche, 2008). This is a salient aspect of young people's lives as educational achievement and future employment become increasingly reliant on the 'new literacy' that can be best learned by extensive, and more importantly, quality use of the internet,

drawing on the role of 'cultural capital' in terms of a social advantage or disadvantage. Furthermore, it is interesting to note how the parents of disadvantaged youngsters divert a considerably higher proportion of their own incomes to enable their children to try and 'keep up', in effect, trying to bridge the digital divide, highlighting their own recognition of the importance of ICTs in the modern world (Livingstone & Helsper, 2007; West, Sweeting, Young, & Robins, 2006).

2.8 Youth, sport and physical activity

The first part of this section examines young people's participation in sport and physical activity as an aspect of their leisure lives. There is a distinction between exercise or physical activity and *sport* that is important to note. First, exercise and physical activity can be undertaken either alone or in groups, free from the constraints of competitiveness and/or rules. For example, youngsters who choose to run, jog, swim or take a brisk walk, may do so for their own satisfaction or as part of a personal fitness regime. However, for an activity to be regarded a sport, it has to pass four criteria which include the following: sports are games that are separate from the more serious aspects of life, in which the contestants have a desire to win; sports require skill which can be learned with training or practice; sports are energetic and require stamina and exertion and sports are competitive (Roberts, 2004). More specifically, Waddington contends:

> Sport cannot be played alone for it must involve two or more opposing players. This, together with the fact that sport involves cooperation but also, and in a highly institutionalized form, competition, means that sport,

> and particularly team sport, is usually a considerably more complex social activity than is non-competitive exercise (Waddington, 2002, p. 413).

While the sheer size of the industry, combined with a large range of 'sporting activities' in which people can engage make a concise definition problematic, there are undoubtedly large numbers of people who do choose to train, in team sports, individually, or in group exercise in a plethora of gymnasia or leisure center's that are available across the UK. The most recent numbers from the Active People Survey indicate that some 6.93 million adults 16 years and over, were participating in 'sporting activity' of moderate intensity, for 30 minutes, three times a week. This rose to 14.76 million for those participating once a week or more (Sport England, 2011). The association between sport, physical activity and health is one that has a long history. According to Waddington (2002), in the UK, this association was based on 'an ideology' that developed in Victorian public schools in nineteenth-century Britain, essentially linking 'athleticism' with both physical and 'moral' health. The addition of physical education to the school curriculum in the early twentieth century has reinforced this link and it is widely accepted as an essential part of a 'healthy lifestyle' (Department for Children Schools and Families [DCSF], 2008; DH, 1993, 2011).

The 'health message' has been consistently reiterated in government publications concerned with young people, sport and physical activity. According to the most recent published Government guidelines, all children and young people between 5-18 years should engage in moderate or vigorous physical activity for at least 60 minutes (and up to several hours) every day to gain associated health benefits (DH, 2004; 2010; 2011). These include: improved cardiovascular health;

maintaining a healthy weight; improved bone health; improved self-confidence and developing social skills. For adults between 19-64 years the guidelines are 150 minutes of moderate physical activity over the course of a week or 30 minutes a day for five days, and the health benefits in addition to those for children include: reducing coronary heart disease, stroke and type-2 diabetes; improving self-esteem and reducing symptoms of anxiety or depression (F. C. Bull & Expert Working Groups, 2010; DH, 2010, 2011). Indeed, there is an incontrovertible body of evidence to show that physical inactivity is the fourth leading risk factor in terms of global mortality (6%), for all age groups (World Health Organisation [WHO], 2010).

As with other aspects of leisure, sport exercise and physical activity is highly contextual, and is influenced by social factors such as age, gender and social class. For example, age is an influence on both the type and amount of sport or physical exercise in which people participate. It is during early and middle-childhood, as part of a socializing process that individuals develop their initial sporting attitudes, beliefs or 'habitus' from parents, immediate family members and institutions like school (Saalens & Kerr, 2008). More specifically, Green noted:

> Specific habits (e.g. playing football) and more general predispositions (towards being physically active) tend to be deeply embedded or internalized during childhood or youth. (Green, 2010, p. 170).

However, that is not to say that 'sporting parents' make 'sporting children'. Some reviews have demonstrated just how complex the parental influence might be. For example, a review of 122 studies which concluded that most of the studies failed

to find strong associations between the physical activity levels of parents and the physical activity levels of their children, although there was some evidence for a stronger association for 'fathers as role models' compared with mothers. Moreover, the strength of associations between social determinants and physical activity in youngsters was greater for environmental and societal influences (school and friends), specifically as children developed through adolescence and expressed their own preferences towards an increasing repertoire of physical activities (De Vet, De Ridder, & De Wit, 2011; Ferreira et al., 2007). Furthermore, findings in the UK show, in the case of young people at school undertaking 'at least two hours of high quality PE or out-of-hours school sport', and participation rates of between 93 and 97 per cent for years one through eight. There was a sharp drop in participation rates to 66 per cent in year 11 (DCSF, 2008). Younger children are more likely to engage in structured or organized physical activity through their PE classes both in school hours and out of hours, whereas adolescents and older youths might engage in alternatives like so called 'lifestyle activities' (aerobics, dance and mixed martial arts).

In addition, there has been a significant growth in 'extreme or alternative sports' (BMX, kayaking, climbing, surfing or skiing) which may complement more conventional or organized sports, and may even displace them (Roberts, 2004; Tomlinson, Ravenscroft, Wheaton, & Gilchrist, 2005). The general trend for young people's participation rates in sport and 'physical activity' is that they have increased (Sport England, 2006, 2011), although the range of alternative or 'lifestyle activities' available to young people continues to grow which highlights how dynamic young people are in their tastes, preferences and their propensity to 'try out' new activities. They have the highest rates of participation in outdoor

leisure and the highest 'drop-out' rates (Green, 2002; Roberts, 1997). Sport and physical activity is also highly gendered with males generally participating more than females, particularly in competitive sport, notwithstanding increasing diversity of sporting activities on offer to both sexes, and an increase in women's participation generally (Smith, 2006). For example, in one recent study into the health and lifestyles of people living in the North West of England, the findings were that significantly more males (46.1 per cent) engaged in high levels of physical activity than females (32.4 per cent), although the converse was found with both moderate and low levels of physical activity, and more females (29.4 and 38.2 per cent respectively), engaged in these moderate and low levels, compared with (22.9 and 31.1 per cent) of males (Deacon, Harrison, Timpson, Toque, & Bellis, 2009). The findings from this study also showed that 69.1 per cent of young men (16-24yrs) engaged in high levels of physical activity compared with 44.9 per cent of young women in the same age category. The definitions of high, moderate and low levels of physical activity were broadly in line with the aforementioned published guidelines for health (F. C. Bull & Expert Working Groups, 2010; Deacon et al., 2009).

According to Green (2010, p. 83), gendered participation rates tend to be primarily a consequence of gender socialization, primarily in the family home and throughout formal education during compulsory schooling. Put more simply, socialization refers to the 'processes by which boys learn to be boys, and girls learn to be girls in relation to the norms of femininity and masculinity.' However, sport and physical activity could be viewed as reinforcing gender stereotypes, once youngsters have completed their compulsory education. For example, Dempster (2009), found in his study of young male undergraduates, that sport facilitated a

culture of 'laddishness' among some male students, who on one hand were keen to distance themselves from some aspects of 'laddishness' (misogynistic and/or homophobic discourse), while embracing other aspects (heavy drinking and initiations). Moreover, evident in these findings, was the 'solidarity' that ensued from the team members and sports institutions that were included. For example, the notion of strength (both individual and group) was discussed and physical characteristics such as size and physique (related to sexual attractiveness), and were viewed as prized assets. Indeed, 'sports lads' in the study commented on how they 'monopolized the student union bar' and 'dominated the dance floor, pushing each other around.' (Dempster, 2009). Body image was a consistent theme for women too in the study by Wright, O'Flynn and Macdonald (2006), who found in their study of 84 young men and women (12-19yrs) a consistent association between body image and sport and/or physical activity. In particular, young women voiced unease about their weight, which was not apparent in the discourse of the young men. Young women were more inclined to participate in physical exercise rather than sport *per se*, because it was seen to be 'more in line' with their sense of their own femininity. Moreover, young women were far more likely to discuss diet and nutrition, as an aspect of their weight and shape management compared with young men. This can manifest in 'dangerous practices' for some young people, specifically women, who may fall victim to erratic eating patterns, associated eating disorders and even smoking tobacco in order to control their shape and weight because of media and societal pressure on what constitutes ideal bodies (Greenleaf, Boyer, & Petrie, 2009; Wright et al., 2006).

What these and many studies like them show, is how young people locate sport and physical activity into their leisure lives, and how it is facilitated or constrained by cultural and societal influences throughout the life-course. However, sport and physical activity is only one aspect of young people's leisure lives, and while the benefits associated with health and well-being are well documented, studies consistently isolate specific facets of young people's leisure lifestyles. This limits understanding of how these are interdependent with other facets of their leisure lives. Moreover, young people in particular are constructing their identities and place in the world, and the dynamics might not be adequately accounted for by studies that focus on single facets of experience or temporal snapshots. For example, while the consistent finding in the literature for levels of physical activity is that it generally decreases with age, the decrease is not linear, and is influenced by a plethora of factors throughout the life-course (Engberg et al., 2012; Kwan, Cairney, Faulkner, & Pullenayegum, 2012; Larouche, Laurencelle, Shephard, & Trudeau, 2012), and these influences have different effects on different individuals or groups at varying times. In other words, these influences or processes do not act in isolation and are inevitably interdependent with other aspects of leisure time. Heavy drinking and initiations to gain access to sport institutions was noted by Dempster (2009), who cited the work of Skelton, and how heavy drinking is interwoven throughout the fabric of sport, specifically, in a university setting. While the role of alcohol in young people's lives is discussed at greater length later in this chapter, the point is that in terms of interdependency, what might seem incongruent aspects of leisure (alcohol and fitness), are inextricably related, particularly in team sports and not solely a male preserve (Davies & Foxall, 2011; Dempster, 2009).

The following sections will review the drug-oriented aspects of young people's leisure careers.

2.9 Youth and alcohol

Taking into account the premise of 'youth's new condition', it is then likely that the role of alcohol for young people passing through this life-stage will have varied, from a historical perspective. Indeed, alcohol consumption has varied since it was measured in terms of volume per capita, although the overall trend has been one of decline in consumption since the late 17th century (Spring & Buss, 1977). Moreover, these variations in consumption have tended to follow trends in economic prosperity, thus in times of recession consumption has been shown to fall and vice-versa (Royal College of Physicians, 1991). Following the lowest recorded levels in the 1930s, consumption has steadily increased, particularly post-war consumption, and along with this rise in consumption there has been a rise in the adverse effects of drinking including injuries, accidents, premature mortality, alcoholism and public nuisance (Plant & Plant, 2006). The increase in alcohol consumption (still measured nationally as volume per capita) has slowed during the last decade, although there are some elements of society where this is not the case (Aldridge, Measham, & Williams, 2011). These authors have shown that consumption rates peak particularly in the young (aged 18-25), including what is termed a 'polarization of drinking' within this group. Put more simply, some young 'drinkers' are drinking more, and abstainers are on the increase along with moderate drinkers (Aldridge et al., 2011). This 'polarization' is reflected in the most recent data in alcohol consumption trends for young people in the UK. For example, the (ONS, 2011), recorded a marked rise in overall weekly alcohol consumption among British women between 1988 and 2002, in particular among

young women aged 16–24. In 1988, 15 per cent of women in this age group were drinking more than 14 units per week, whereas in 2002 it was 33 per cent. However, there was a fall in the proportion of women aged 16–24 drinking more than 14 units per week to 19 per cent in 2006. A new methodology of converting volumes of alcoholic drinks to units of alcohol was introduced in 2006. The figures using this new methodology indicated that 24 per cent of women aged 16–24 were exceeding 14 units per week in 2006 and 23 per cent in 2009 (ONS, 2011).

Interwoven and sometimes hidden, within the dynamics of alcohol consumption rates, is the complex nature of the relationship that young people have with alcohol; that is to say, how they (mis)use it and how this has developed over time. For example, the distinction that drinking alcohol is strictly (in terms of being 18) an adult pursuit differentiates the relationship that people either side of this chronological marker may have with alcohol. Some have argued that because of the strict societal controls on alcohol (particularly for the young), has led to alcohol becoming more desirable, attaining a 'forbidden fruit' status and ultimately more extreme consumption by young people (Fox, 2011). Further evidence of this was found by a study of Danish youngsters (14-16) who demonstrated that more permissive parents (those who negotiated responsible drinking with their 'underage' children) resulted in more moderate consumption and attitudes to drinking by their children, than those who simply prohibited their children from drinking alcohol, but who drank themselves (Kolind, 2011).

Moreover, many young people often refer to a sense of the liminality of their youth, implying the role of alcohol as *'rites de passage'* (Butler, 1990), and that excessive consumption is just a part of 'youth identity' (McCreanor, Greeaway,

Barnes, Borell, & Gregory, 2005; Piancentini & Bannister, 2006). These aspects of youth have been capitalized on by the drinks industry, which has diversified alcohol products and has specifically targeted young people in its marketing strategy, which is reflected in the data collected on young people's drinking and what they drink (British Medical Association [BMA], 2009; European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs [ESPAD], 2009; Gordon, MacKintosh, & Moodie, 2010; Smith & Foxcroft, 2009). For example, the 1990s witnessed the advent of 'designer drinks' or 'alcopops' (ready-made, pre-mixed, spirit-based alcoholic drinks). These were hugely popular, especially among young people (Metzner & Kraus, 2007). Indeed, for many young people, 'alcopops' are the first experience of drinking alcohol, with brand leaders such as 'WKD', 'Bacardi Breezers' and 'Smirnoff Ice' among the most popular, particularly with young women (Brain, parker, & Carnwath, 2000). However, an interesting finding is how some young people distance themselves from these drinks once they are of legal age or become more experienced drinkers (Aldridge et al., 2011). Indeed, among 18 year olds 'alcopops' were found to be among the least drunk drink of choice (19.9 per cent), with beer and cider (81.7 per cent) being the most popular, followed by spirits (37.8 per cent) and wine (27.5 per cent) (Aldridge et al., 2011).

Alongside preferences for what they drink, some research has shown a transitional model of young people's drinking behaviours, which have conceptualized how their drinking developed over time. For example, initial drinking in early adolescence was often mediated by parental control (as part of the socialization process), perhaps at Christmas or other family-centered occasions and with explicit permission from a parent or guardian (Balding, 2006; Harnett, Thom, Herring, & Kelly, 2000; Miller & Plant, 2003). Whereas, in middle-adolescence alcohol use

was more experimental, often more peer-influenced and was more likely to be a covert activity, away from the family-home (parks, streets and after school scenarios) but in view of other 'approving' adolescents (Harnett et al., 2000; Miller & Plant, 2003). Furthermore, the data show that by the time most youngsters are at the legal age to drink (18 in the UK), drinking alcohol is a largely universal pursuit, and an important part of their leisure time (Aldridge et al., 2011; Parker, Aldridge, & Measham, 1998). Furthermore, in their longitudinal study of young people's drug use in the north-west of England these authors found a correlation between age and frequency of drinking occasions as well as amount of alcohol consumed on a single occasion, with both increasing as youngsters approached 18, with alcohol consumption peaking between 18-25 years (Aldridge et al., 2011; Parker et al., 1998). This pattern of drinking (or drinking trajectories) has become normalized over the last decade or so as an aspect of young people's leisure lives and some argue it is at the heart of the phenomenon of a so called 'binge-drinking' culture among young people (Aldridge et al., 2011; Parker et al., 1998; Parker & Williams, 2003).

It is perhaps unsurprising that the media have seized upon young people's drinking, with reports of binge-drinking often in the headlines (British Broadcasting Coporation [BBC], 2009, 2011; Carvel & O'Hara, 2009; Daily Mail, 2011). Often thought of as synonymous with public drunkenness and disorder, images of young men fighting or young women in a state of undress due to binge-drinking have been a common feature in media articles and news reports (IAS, 2000, 2010; Szmigin et al., 2008). However, beyond the over simplification that 'media-generated' images of binge-drinking can generate, research shows that the phenomenon is highly contextual, with most surveys reporting a gender effect

with young men tending to binge drink more than young women, although the gap between them has narrowed considerably, and continues to do so (ESPAD, 2009; Measham & Ostergaard, 2009).

The 'gender convergence' in binge drinking is sometimes allied to the rise of the so-called 'ladette culture' (Plant, 2008), although this seems a convenient term for a society that may be uneasy with the undoubted shift away from historical gender roles, and women's empowerment (Jackson & Tinkler, 2007). What is sometimes under-reported is the fact that males are drinking less alcohol overall, so the 'gender convergence' is not wholly attributable to an increase in women's drinking, and is more likely a reflection of the changing patterns of consumption for both men and women (Aldridge et al., 2011; Measham & Ostergaard, 2009). However, the most recent statistics indicate increasing mortality directly attributable to alcohol consumption, with deaths effectively doubling over the last decade from 3,415 deaths to 7,344 per annum ONS, 2011). Perhaps more alarming are trends, such as the rate of increase in both sexes for alcohol-related deaths, particularly evident in 25-34 year olds (32 per cent), and especially young women (British Liver trust, 2010; ONS, 2011). Binge-drinking is further influenced by social class and ethnicity, as well as (un)employment and post-compulsory education. For example, social class, occupation and deprivation have all been identified as factors associated with binge drinking (Deacon et al., 2009; Erskine, Maheswaran, Pearson, & Gleeson, 2010; Jefferis, Manor, & power, 2007).

Data from research evidence shows that binge-drinking generally increases as deprivation increases. For example, in the North West of England more people in the most deprived areas (18.9 per cent) binge drink than in the least deprived

areas (14.7 per cent) (Deacon et al., 2009). This pattern is consistent with national alcohol-related mortality with the most deprived areas comprising 57.8 per cent of alcohol-related mortality and the least deprived 25 per cent (Erskine et al., 2010). There is a similar pattern in the North East of England although the social gradients for both men and women are less here than other reported regions (suggesting less inequality), but the statistics show a higher rate of alcohol-related deaths compared to other regions (ONS, 2011; Shelton & Savell, 2011). This inverse relationship is an illustration of the complex nature of drinking patterns and outcomes, although the general finding is that the steeper the social gradient, the higher the rate of binge drinking, and subsequent poor health outcomes (Marmot, 2010; ONS, 2011). In terms of occupations, the statistics show that generally both sexes in routine occupations were more likely to binge drink than those from the professional or managerial occupations (Jefferis et al., 2007), and this appears to be consistent with alcohol-related deaths based on NS-SEC classifications of occupation (ONS, 2011).

One peculiarity of women's drinking is a reversal of the social gradient in binge drinking for women based on educational status. For example, less educated men tend to binge drink more compared to men with higher qualifications and this social gradient stays consistent for men throughout the life course. However, evidence shows that for women this is reversed up to around 30 years old, with more educated women binge drinking more than less educated women before their 30s and vice versa after their 30s (Deacon et al., 2009; Jefferis et al., 2007).

It has been suggested that drinking patterns vary across socio-economic classes, and this can be influenced by affordability and availability of alcohol. For example,

the Marmot Review (2010), found an inverse gradient for alcohol consumption, but highlighted that people with lower socio-economic status who consumed alcohol were more likely to have problematic drinking patterns (including binge drinking) and dependence. In other words, more disposable income available to the household meant the higher the rate of consumption of alcohol (Marmot, 2010). However, it appears that as the relative price of alcohol has fallen, so the associated social gradient of deaths has reversed (Jefferis et al., 2007). The fact that alcohol has become more affordable might therefore affect the various socio-economic groups differently. Statistics from the NHS Information Centre suggest that alcohol was 75 per cent more affordable in 2008 than in 1980 (NHS Information Centre, 2011).

2.10 University students and alcohol in the UK

The rapid expansion in the UK student population is generally viewed positively in terms of the educational attainment and personal development of young people (Christie et al., 2008). However, there has been increasing concern with aspects of student life, specifically, their relationship with alcohol. Indeed, a recent report exploring the activities of 13,000 19 year old students in England, found that although a minority were drinking either 'almost every day' (2 per cent) or '5 or 6 times a week' (3 per cent), the majority of these (49 and 62 per cent respectively) were in full-time education (Department for Education [DFE], 2011). Furthermore, what is consistent in the available literature concerned with alcohol is that alcohol consumption statistics for young people tend to be broken down by age, gender and ethnicity categories – with scant reporting of alcohol consumption patterns based on youth participation in post-compulsory education, which may be important because some findings report links between adolescent binge drinking

and binge drinking in later life (Jefferis, Power, & Manor, 2005). This is surprising considering UK students comprise some 38% of young people of 18-25 years in the UK, and 75% of First years reside in university managed accommodation (HESA, 2011; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005; Universities & Colleges Admissions Service [UCAS], 2010). There is a plethora of empirical studies focussing on university students, where they reside and their consumption of alcohol (Orford, Krishnan, Balaam, Everitt, & Van der Graaf, 2004; Wechsler, 2000; Wechsler, Kuh, & Davenport, 2009; Wechsler, Lee, Kuo, & Lee, 2000; Willoughby & Carroll, 2009). These studies have largely been conducted in the US, however, and there remains difficulty in comparing the experiences of US students to those in the UK because of legalities such as the minimum age being different, and cultural differences.

Some findings have suggested that for some of these young people becoming a university student in the UK is a personal identity often associated with aspects of leisure such as heavy drinking (John & Alwyn, 2010; Penny & Armstrong-Hallam, 2010). For example, John and Alwyn (2010) found that 88 per cent of HE students in their Welsh study indulged in binge-drinking, alluding to students' lack of understanding over the unitary guidelines, which in turn may even lead to an under-reporting of the phenomena. This was consistent with the findings from Penny and Armstrong-Hallam (2010) who also found that students were drinking far in excess of the unitary guidelines and that '…university culture is a drinking culture, often typified by excessive alcohol consumption' (Penny & Armstrong-Hallam, 2010, p. 115). Linking these studies with the most recent statistics from the Department for Education (2011), might indeed suggest there is an alcohol-centered culture in UK universities. However, students who go to university, do so

in different formats, far beyond the categories of age, gender and ethnicity, which make the term 'drinking culture' somewhat oversimplified. What students consistently reported in these studies was their perception of a 'university drinking culture', which was formed prior to their entry (John & Alwyn, 2010; McAlaney & McMahon, 2007; Penny & Armstrong-Hallam, 2010).

Recent intervention studies focussing on alcohol use in university students have pointed to the importance of responding to students' perceptions of alcohol use amongst their peers, in particular, its perceived prevalence among other students (Bertholet, Gaume, Faouzi, Daeppen, & Gmel, 2010; Kypri & Langley, 2003; McAlaney & McMahon, 2007; Perkins, 2007). For example, Bertholet et al. (2011) used social norms theory was a credible explanation for overestimation of the drinking by others having any basis with their actual drinking patterns. In other words, in terms of alcohol consumption, the authors contend, in the case of students "the more I think you drink, the more I drink" (Bertholet et al., 2010). However, the participants in this study were all males, and not all students. This phenomenon is an illustration of the 'Thomas theorem' adopted by sociologists: if people define situations as real, then they tend to be real in their consequences (De Swaan, 2001). Two further studies conducted in New Zealand and Canada respectively, found similar correlations between overestimation of drinking and actual consumption and used solely HE students in their samples. Both however, used cross-sectional survey methods, which whilst useful in reporting quantities and patterns in consumption, can be sometimes limited in addressing the complexities of patterns of student drinking (Kypri & Langley, 2003; Perkins, 2007). Moreover, these studies both concluded that whilst social norms may contribute to misperceptions of alcohol consumption by students, they are limited

by the use of cross-sectional data, which fails to explore the relevance of potential influences or address socio-economic backgrounds and residence on-campus.

Piancentini and Bannister (2006) conducted a study on UK university students, which qualitatively looked at how students form not one, but multiple identities, and how these identities interacted with 'an alcohol-centered drinking culture' described by their own participants and those from the aforementioned studies. They argue that whilst behavioural norms can become synonymous with an identity, and established or reinforced within a setting or context, the idea of a single 'student identity' is oversimplified (Piancentini & Bannister, 2006). Therefore any single theory that purports to explain students' drinking patterns within those contexts is potentially flawed. This is further illustrated in the way some students report their university experience, and how their leisure lives can be centered around alcohol, whilst others report adopting strategies to avoid participation in this so-called 'drinking culture'. For example, Stock et al. (2009), found that there was growing resistance to the stereotypical image of excessive drinking amongst university students and even some consensus among students to banning the sale of alcohol on university campuses. However, this study did not include UK students, who continue to rank highly in tables reporting alcohol prevalence rates (Dantzer, Wardle, Fuller, Pampalone, & Steptoe, 2006).

These points notwithstanding, there is a need for further research on the role that drinking plays in young people's leisure lives, and how university might influence this pattern. What is consistent in these studies however, is that university students on the whole, tend to drink excessively when compared with the general population, especially those students who chose to live away from home whilst

studying (Dantzer et al., 2006; Piancentini & Bannister, 2006; Wechsler et al., 2009; Willoughby & Carroll, 2009). While 'residence' as an aspect of 'being a student' has been extensively researched in the US and some other countries remains under-researched in the UK. The dearth in the UK is surprising since there are some notable differences between US and UK universities, largely around the legislature concerning alcohol, tobacco and illicit drugs. For example, the legal age for consuming alcohol is 21 in the US, compared with 18 in the UK. There may also be maturation differences between the two countries student populations. In the UK the effect that transcending this legal barrier has on young people's drinking behaviour has been noted by several authors (Aldridge et al., 2011; Parker et al., 1998). One cross-sectional study at a university in the north-west of England explicitly explored the differences between first year students' drinking, smoking and drug-taking, in terms of where they resided whilst attending university (Wilson, 2010). The findings showed those students who lived on-campus, in university managed accommodation had significantly higher prevalence rates of binge-drinking (87 per cent) compared with those who remained at home whilst studying (28 per cent) (Wilson, 2010). Moreover, these differences between students according to their living arrangements were consistent in associated behaviours such as pre-loading (65 per cent compared with 36 per cent), and consequences from drinking such as missed lectures or deadlines (35 per cent compared with 8 per cent) for those living on-campus compared with those living at home respectively (Wilson, 2010). The findings from this exploratory study showed statistically significant differences in the alcohol consumption of first-year students who lived on-campus compared with those who continued to live at home, which would be consistent with the high alcohol

consumption of US students living on American college campuses (Wechsler, 2000; Wechsler et al., 2009; Willoughby & Carroll, 2009).

Some theorize that these patterns are partly due to decreased parental surveillance, and an increase in the influence of other young people (Beasley et al., 2004; Roberts, 2006). Moreover, the key aspect of residence, especially living away from direct parental surveillance, along with increased opportunities to make new friends, was reported in findings where students suggested that breaking away from family and home allows them to create new peer-based networks and identities (Beasley et al., 2004; Holdsworth, 2009, 2008). Part of this transition might be how the non-academic aspects of student life are emphasized to young people by the media, with some research suggesting universities are marketing themselves as locations of pleasure (Quinn, 2004). Indeed, some young people may view 'student life' as synonymous with over-indulgence (especially in terms of alcohol consumption), and therefore residence may offer those who wish to indulge greater opportunities to engage in these behaviours, as part of their new student identity, within the university (Christie, 2007; Holdsworth, 2008, 2009; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005). In other words, the campus setting may offer students a space for 'controlled loss of control' in terms of excessive drinking (IAS, 2000; Measham & Brain, 2005). Age is perhaps unsurprisingly key as a factor in consumption patterns of alcohol, as the most recent statistics demonstrate (DFE, 2011), which all point to the highest prevalence rates of excessive drinking being consistent in young people aged between 18-25 years. The UK student population too, is largely comprised of the same age group with 88 per cent of all students between 18-24 years (UCAS, 2010).

2.11 Youth and illicit drugs

During the 1980s increases in the use of heroin in several large UK cities, most notably Edinburgh, Glasgow and London, resulted in a media-led moral panic and a subsequent government public health campaign under the tagline 'Heroin screws you up'. This campaign portrayed drug users as criminals who would mug you, or 'push' drugs onto you, which 'set in stone' the link between 'drugs and crime'. Youth was neatly added to the mix of 'drugs and crime' during the 'rave culture' that emerged towards the end of the 1980s which was widely reported in the media as a new 'drug menace' and featured a small number of high profile deaths, in particular 18 year old Leah Betts who's hospital bed photograph has become iconic of the risks from taking drugs, specifically ecstasy (BBC, 1995). A more recent example was the political furor surrounding the UK Government's response to a media-led moral panic over so-called 'legal highs', in particular the Cathinone derivative Mephedrone or M-cat. Again, a small number of high profile deaths were linked by the British media with this legally available substance and the Government acted to ban both the distribution and possession of M-cat, albeit against the advice of the Advisory Council for the Misuse of Drugs (ACMD) (Fleming, 2010). Notwithstanding the enduring effect these continued media-led panics have on public perception, they fail to address both the diversity of different drugs, and complex backgrounds and/or motivations of users. The most recent European-wide data of drug use also shows how the UK has, for the first time since 2000 has recorded a decline in the prevalence of cannabis use to below the EU average. This is against a backdrop of what was historically the highest rate of cannabis use in the EU since monitoring began (European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction [EMCDDA], 2011). Moreover, UK data shows an overall decline in the use of all drugs since the peak of the mid-1990s from 30 per cent

to 22.6 per cent in 2009 for those aged under 15 years (Fuller, 2011; Jotangia & Thompson, 2009). However, those between 16–24 years reported levels similar to those of the mid-1990s in terms of total drug use in either their lifetime or during the last year the last year (Smith & Flatley, 2011).

What the British Crime Surveys illustrate are the UK national trends in preferred choice of drug. While cannabis remains the most widely used drug for young people aged 16-24 years, its use declined from 26 per cent of the age group in 1996, to 17 per cent in 2011. A similar decline in the use of amphetamines (11.8 to 2.5 per cent) and hallucinogens like LSD (4.5 to 0.6 per cent) is also evident in this age group, along with a slight decline in the use of ecstasy (11.7 to 9.5 per cent). However, there has been a marked rise in the use of cocaine, both powder and crack over the same time period from 1.4 to 4.5 per cent (Smith & Flatley, 2011). Heroin use in this group is low by comparison with other drugs and has declined from 0.4 to 0.1 per cent over the same time period. What these surveys reveal is the changing trends of drug use over time and the contrast between young people 'having ever used' or 'frequently use' drugs. This distinguishes so-called 'recreational' use, associated with cannabis and ecstasy, and the daily, dependent use of heroin, cocaine and other opiates. This is an important distinction, because it is the case that for the vast majority of young users, a recreational pattern of consumption is the norm (Aldridge et al., 2011; Parker et al., 1998; Wibberley & Price, 2000). A recreational pattern of drug use is one where the user chooses to take their preferred drug of choice as part of the social context they are in at that time, which is markedly different to the 'dependent addict' who through the very nature of their addiction is dependent on the drug to function 'normally'. Notwithstanding this distinction, the perception of drugs *per*

se as being somehow 'all bad' in all contexts is one that persists in the mainstream public psyche and government policy (Aldridge et al., 2011; Parker et al., 1998).

An issue in the accuracy of illicit drug use in the UK population exists in the methodologies through which the data are collected. For example, questions asking about the 'use of drugs' are often framed as: ever in your lifetime; during the last year; during the last month or during the last week, which is problematic because it neglects the scenario of 'one-off triers'. Moreover, young people may over or under-claim their drug use, to either impress, or because of the fear of admitting illicit behaviour (Balding, 2000; Shildrick, 2008). However, methodological difficulties aside, it is possible to show trends in drug use in terms of age, gender and socio-economic background. Young people's illicit drug-taking careers tend to follow several patterns. In their longitudinal cohort study, Sweeting and West (2008) showed prevalence rates for all illicit drugs tended to increase with a young person's age, so that those in their late-teens and early-twenties were using drugs in general more frequently than those younger teenagers. However, different drugs become more or less prevalent with age, with cannabis use showing a greater increase from mid to late teens and 'harder' drug use (for instance, ecstasy and cocaine) increasing more steadily with age. This is because young people's exposure to drug use increases dramatically once they have left school (Sweeting & West, 2008; Wibberley & Price, 2000). This pattern was a consistent finding in the data from the North-West Longitudinal Study which tracked the development of over 700 young people in the north-west of England from the age of 14 to 19 in terms of their alcohol, tobacco and illicit drug use (Aldridge et al., 2011; Parker et al., 1998). The influence of gender on prevalence rates is also a consistent finding both at European level and in the UK (EMCDDA,

2011). The general trend is that while in the 1980s around twice as many men were using drugs compared with women, the gender gap has narrowed significantly and the notion of 'Being a female, middle-class, A-level student is no longer a protective drug-free profile' (Aldridge et al., 2011, p. 103).

This gender convergence and blurring of the social class aspect of drug-taking during adolescence are aspects of the normalization of drug usage among contemporary youth (Parker, Williams, & Aldridge, 2002). Critics of the normalization debate point to the time-frames in which drug-use is measured being flawed:

> Even though there is clear evidence of increasing levels of drug-use among young people, both the extent and frequency are easily exaggerated through over-reliance on lifetime measures … when shorter measures are utilized, strong evidence for the normalization thesis is even more elusive (Shiner & Newburn, 1997, p. 519).

Moreover, (Shiner & Newburn, 1997) alluded to findings from a large-scale survey neglecting the contexts in which drug-use takes place, and the meaning that drugs hold for young people. The issue of what young people perceive as relatively 'safe' was also noted by Wibberley and Price (2000), who examined the perceptions of 15-16 year olds on a number of different drugs including cannabis, ecstasy, heroin and cocaine. What was evident in their findings was the distinction made by young people between different drugs and their perceived risk in using them. Again, in terms of 'having ever used', cannabis was the most widely used drug (54 per cent), followed by amyl nitrate (poppers) (31 per cent), amphetamines (17 per

cent), solvents (12 per cent) and hallucinogens (10 per cent). Heroin had an increased level of perceived deviance, and its use was associated with 'death' among this sample of young people, to which the authors concluded any 'normalization thesis' was indeed substance specific rather than a general process (Shildrick, 2002, 2008; Wibberley & Price, 2000).

2.12 Youth and tobacco

According to data from the (ESPAD, 2005, 2009), there has been a decline in the prevalence of tobacco smoking across European countries, most notably Norway and the UK over the previous 15 years. However, as with illicit drugs or alcohol, an overall decline can mask or distort emerging patterns, and studies included in this section highlight some of these patterns. Recent statistics suggest that in the UK about 24 per cent of adolescents smoke, and this peaks to around 26 per cent for young adults between 20–34 years before a steady decline as people get older (Robinson & Harris, 2009). Age is not the only determinant of smoking, however – gender, socioeconomic status, region, ethnicity and social context can influence young people's smoking patterns. However, age is particularly important because more young people start smoking than other age groups (Fuller, 2011; Hastings & Angus, 2008; Robinson & Harris, 2009). The current legislation prohibits the sale of tobacco products to those below 18 years of age, in line with alcohol - the minimum age was raised in 2007 from 16 to 18 by the Labour Government. However, according to recent data from Robinson and Harris (2009), who sampled over 7,290 young people between 11–15 years old, found 60 per cent of the respondents, who were either current smokers or had smoked regularly at some point, started smoking before they were 18 (regular smoking was defined as smoking more than one cigarette per week). Moreover, almost 40 per cent smoked

regularly before the age of 16. During the 1990s, men were more likely to smoke than women before they were 16. The most recent data show that since 1992, while there has been little change in young male smokers (40 per cent) who started before they were 16, there has been a marked increase in young women smokers (28 to 37 per cent), who started before they were 16. Furthermore, an association between smoking and socio-economic classification was also consistent throughout findings, with overall prevalence data showing 16 per cent smoking from 'non-manual' households, and 26 per cent smoking prevalence from 'manual' households. While both socio-economic groups reported a decline in smoking prevalence rates, this decline was larger in the 'non-manual' households since 1998 (33 to 26 per cent and 22 to 16 per cent respectively). Moreover, when these smokers started smoking was also reported, with 33 per cent of smokers from 'non-manual' households, starting before they were 16, compared with 47 per cent of smokers from 'manual' households (Fuller, 2011; Hastings & Angus, 2008; Robinson & Harris, 2009). In terms of region, the highest smoking prevalence was found in the North West of England (23 per cent) and the lowest in the South West at around 18 per cent (Robinson & Harris, 2009).

Reasons for smoking are complex, and notwithstanding the implications for poor health outcomes, a significant minority of youngsters continued to smoke as outlined in the previous findings. The addictive nature of tobacco has been noted but beyond addiction, studies have explored the meaning of smoking in young people's lives (Hughes, 2003). As with illicit drugs and alcohol, survey data reflect a propensity for young people to indulge in these substances at higher prevalence's compared to other sections of society. The social role of cigarettes in young people's lives was explored by Fry, Grogan, Gough and Conner (2008), in

their study of 87 16-24 year olds, which suggested that young people viewed smoking as a social tool. The data that emerged from their combined use of interviews and focus groups showed a complex social role for cigarettes in young people's lives. For example, in managing social situations:

> Both young men and women claimed that even while waiting for a train, or standing around in the street alone, they will invariably seek to 'control' other people's attention by either smoking or doing something else. For instance, non-smokers from both schools and universities claimed they would play with their mobile phones for the same reasons (Fry et al., 2008, p. 770).

Moreover, the social context was an influence on young people's smoking, with some stating they were 'social smokers' who smoked only in certain situations such as 'drinking with peers who smoke'. Indeed, the importance of peers and whether they smoke is a consistent finding in most studies, both in the initial uptake and the continuation of smoking (Fry et al., 2008; Milton, Dugdill, Porcellato, & Springett, 2008; Stewart-Knox et al., 2005).

Milton et al. (2008) examined the uptake of smoking in a framework of 'transition from childhood into youth'. These authors used mixed methods on a sample of 250 schoolchildren and found how pre-adolescents recognized the health implications of smoking and often associated it as being an 'adult pursuit'. However, one 'unintended outcome' of this was for the youngsters to state they might like to start smoking because 'it was grown-up'. This suggests an increased desire for young people to engage in smoking to demonstrate their maturity or

adult status, and may be an important aspect of young people's smoking (Milton et al., 2008; Parker et al., 1998). Furthermore, the authors noted the ubiquitous nature of the product, as with alcohol, reflected a societal ambivalence, which in turn means it is inextricably linked with how people live their lives in the following ways: young people see those around them (peers, parents, public figures) smoking which normalizes the behaviour; the media portrays smoking in films, TV programmes and celebrity magazines, which are aimed at young people, and, young people are exposed to positive images of smoking through evocative packaging and brand imagery including sponsorship of high profile sporting events (Hastings & Angus, 2008).

Indeed, recent increases in the number of young women smoking have been linked to anxieties about regulating weight. Grogan, Fry, Gough and Conner (2009), explored young people's gendered smoking behaviours and found that girls were more likely to smoke than boys (although in terms of quantity of cigarettes there was little difference between them). Moreover, both girls and boys were more concerned with how smoking damage may affect their appearance, than their health, although this was more evident in girls. The study concluded that smoking to stay thin or lose weight for girls and looking older and/or more mature for boys, were common themes. Furthermore, smokers associated their smoking to increased confidence, which they thought of as a positive aspect. Research evidence would suggest that the social aspects of smoking seem more important to young people than the well-documented health concerns. This was particularly the case for older adolescents, as a number of studies examining the smoking of university students have consistently found. For example, in terms of UK university students, the majority of studies tended to focus on prevalence of

smoking and/or individual tests of cessation methods or interventions. For example, Watson, Whyte, Schartau and Jamieson (2006), used a cross-sectional survey and reported data to show an increased prevalence of smoking in the student population (28 per cent) compared with a non-student population (25 per cent). These findings also revealed that those who drank alcohol the heaviest were also more likely to smoke, suggesting a clustering of behaviours that continued throughout their undergraduate degrees and when combined might exacerbate poorer health outcomes (Beasley et al., 2004; Colder, Flay, Segawa, & Hedeker, 2008; Watson et al., 2006).

To better understand the complexities of young people's smoking, Hughes (2003) – endeavoured to make sociological sense of smoking 'through the eyes of smokers themselves'. Hughes noted that young people drink alcohol, smoke tobacco and take drugs for various reasons, with little concern for their immediate or long-term health. Examples include psychological control, emotion management and forming identities, which are in turn often linked with specific events and/or aspects of their leisure lifestyle biographies. Moreover, the complexities of their smoking altered as they developed both throughout their lives *per se* but also in the contexts and constructs of their daily lives (Hughes, 2003).

2.13 Explaining university students' lives: theoretical concepts

This chapter has examined a number of studies centered on the leisure lives of young people. These studies have, in the main, been informed by various theoretical concepts. The second section of this chapter reviews the theoretical concepts deployed as part of the framework in which this research was

undertaken. These concepts will be returned to in subsequent chapters as a framework to explain data generated by this research.

2.13.1 Identity

Youth is often characterized by an eagerness among young people to establish a personal (or self-)identity beyond that ascribed via primary (the family) and secondary (school, in particular) socialization (Coalter, 2007). The concept of self-identity refers to an individual's 'sense of self'; in other words, the kind of person they see themselves as – who they feel they are – and what marks them out in their own minds as well as that of others. Therefore, self-identity has two dimensions: 'a desired self (how I would like to be), and a presented self (how I try to appear to others)' (Green, 2010, p. 251).

However, self-identity is not a straightforward personal matter. It is associated with group identity in terms of the social networks young people choose to be a part of (such as Facebook groups or university societies) combined with those they are more explicitly part of (e.g. families, gender groupings, schools, ethnic groups).

Young people's identities tend to be grounded in routine interactions with members of the various networks they populate. They lead their lives in social groups (e.g. at university, with friends, and with social media). Thus, young peoples' social identities are continually shaped by what they have in common with these groups (shared experiences and tastes). However, the common bond of a social or group identity is not, 'exclusively dependent on direct interpersonal interaction with other members of the category' (Payne, 2006, p. 9). Young

peoples' identities can also be defined by social groups they are part of but might not closely interact with in the same way they might a group of friends. Indeed, common bonds are often looser among social categories such as age cohorts, gender class and ethnicity (Payne, 2006, p. 9).

Combined with these overarching social categories, other aspects of young people's personal identities are situation specific in the sense that they depend upon what they are doing, who they are with and where they are and some of these situations are more significant than others in their consequences in terms of personal identity. Indeed, personal identities are multi-faceted because young people are members of multiple groups including their families, schools, regions, nations, ethnicity, sexes and clubs.

The upshot is that young people develop over-lapping, sometimes contradictory or mutually reinforcing, personal identities in different aspects of their lives. Thus, young peoples' personal identities are multi-dimensional, and they incorporate some or all of age, family, sex and gender, nationality, ethnicity, peers and friendship groups. Moreover, the opportunity to achieve desired identities tends to be bound by their ascribed identities (Jones, 2009).

Inevitably, there is a tension between group membership and individuality, and young people in Western societies tend to reconcile this by seeking to stand out but mainly in socially acceptable ways that cement particular group identities, mainly through consumerism (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Roberts, 2009). An ever-increasing range of identities is available for purchase in the form of new technologies, music, body art and/or modification, dress, sports and leisure

activities. In effect, young people can 'pick and mix', continually refine and even change their identities in line with currently desirable and acceptable styles that change periodically (Green, 2010, p. 95), and within the constraints of both available and realistically achievable (including ascribed) identities.

However, while young people report being under constant peer pressure to appear independent, be recognized, appear grown up and to have fun (Carter, Bennetts, & Carter, 2003; Van Wel, Maarsingh, Ter Bogt, & Raaijmakers, 2008), concluded in their study of Dutch youth, that the majority of youngsters want to belong to 'mainstream youth' rather than stand out. Moreover, many young people appear not to identify with distinctive youth cultures. Indeed, they tend to report their social identity as 'normal' and remain fundamentally conformist (Jones, 2009).

2.13.2 Social class, socialization and habitus

Social class is an 'all-embracing term' that can be seen as 'the main form of stratification (socially constructed inequality) in modern societies' (Roberts, 2009: 35). It has an economic basis and is commonly linked to 'the status and life-chances of members of that society' (Roberts, 2009: 35). However, this perspective does not imply that either the overall concept of class or the strata within these societies (classes) are somehow fixed. Indeed, in post-industrialized Britain there has been an expansion of the middle-class and a shrinking of the working-class, and both intra, and intergenerational social mobility – the movement of social actors between classes in a class system – has become more commonplace (Roberts, 2001: 193). Notwithstanding the dynamics of social class and, potential for social mobility, sociologists tend to agree that people are grouped together into classes according to their occupations and social origins.

This gives rise to a sense of class consciousness, shared beliefs and proclivities which tend to be reproduced generationally, broadly speaking, based on their parents' social origins (Roberts, 2001: 194).

Relatedly, socialization refers to the social processes through which society influences the development of the person, 'whereby society actually becomes part of the individual, who internalizes the knowledge and beliefs, and builds a personality enabling him or her to become a full member of that society' (Roberts, 2010, p. 270). Processes of socialization involve the internalization of societal (group) norms, and are central in understanding young people's predispositions towards their participation in various domains, such as their propensity toward different leisure activities (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Shiner & Newburn, 1997), and in other domains such as higher education (Ball, 2013; Reay & Ball, 2005; Reay et al., 2005).

In other words, socialization amounts to people learning the culture or ways of life of the social groups into which they are born and live. Agents of socialization are subdivided into two categories: primary and secondary. Primary socialization refers to the initial and arguably most influential form of socialization, ordinarily experienced within the family setting, particularly from parents. Conversely, secondary socialization refers to arenas of life beyond the family (such as school, university and peer groups). Other significant secondary agents of socialization (in terms of influence and/or time) include TV and the Internet and part-time workplaces (Jones, 2009). Commonly associated with socialization is the term 'significant others', and in practice, significant others for many young people – particularly throughout the youth life-stage - are their friends and peers (Jones,

2009). This concept is central to a better understanding of the increasing number of young people who go to university, especially those who live away during term-time. They tend to be less constrained by parental surveillance – although this is likely to be class-specific – and have increased opportunities to make new friends and engage in more peer-centered leisure activities (Beasley et al., 2004; Holdsworth, 2008, 2009).

Notwithstanding socialization as a lifelong process in which peers become increasingly important, the significance of early life experiences (and those within the family, in particular) should not be underestimated. Indeed, later stages of the socialization process build upon the foundations laid during primary socialization (Roberts, 2009: 270). Therefore, the significance of socialization is in the shaping of young people's predispositions to action. This can be understood with reference to the concept of 'habitus'.

Bourdieu's concept of habitus is frequently used by sociologists, to explain a person's preferences and tastes for different cultural, including leisure, pursuits. Habitus can be defined as, 'the metaphorical dwellings in which we live, but they are not outside but within us, within our minds. They are formed during socialization and comprise durable perceptions, understandings and predispositions to action' (Roberts, 2010, p. 20). Elias too, uses the concept of habitus to encapsulate a person's 'tastes, habits, complexes or personality structure' (van Krieken, 1998: 60). Indeed, both sociologists understood habitus as a system where these 'acquired' predispositions to action are based in the familiarity of the social worlds we inhabit, and therefore, the social classes we are born into (Paulle, van Heerihuizen & Emirbayer, 2012).

Moreover, habitus has enabled both sociologists to theorize beyond the subject-object dichotomy and conceptualize an agent's unconscious system of 'self-steering', which is continually influenced and 'remade' by interdependencies with, or "forces emanating from the 'outside' world" (Paulle et al., 2012). Essentially, both Elias and Bourdieu argued that the agent's habitus generated responses that were not the result of explicit thought processes but, were intrinsic to the context of "the 'open' or 'exposed' person who has gradually come to feel so at home in (or at least prediscursively absorbed by) an objective situation" (Paulle et al., 2012). That said, habitus should not be confused with instinct or reflexes that might have a biological foundation and "however much habitual action may be removed from hesitation and reflection, such action is still no more 'mechanical' than action of the same type that emerges from wholly reflective processes" (Camic, 1986).

Similarities in their thinking extend to 'the situation' and whether it is field or figuration (terms used by Bourdieu and Elias respectively to describe the contexts in which actors are immersed in their everyday practices). Both realised that non-economic power resources (Bourdieu's capital) are distributed unequally among both individuals and groups (Paulle et al., 2012). That is not to say, however, processes of social reproduction are a 'closed loop', and habitus is simply a consequence of an actor's specific social class or position. Habitus develops throughout a person's life, 'for although the self-steering of a person, malleable during childhood, solidifies and hardens as he grows up, it never ceases entirely to be affected by his changing relations with others' (van Krieken, 1998: 61). Indeed, power resources (capital) always "emerge out of, function within, and

restructure unfolding social configurations, leading to better or worse 'fits' within emerging social realities" (Paulle et al., 2012; van Krieken, 1998).

One of the defining features of habitus is that it is embodied by enduring ways 'of standing, speaking, walking and thereby of feeling and thinking (Bourdieu, 1990: 70). However, Reay (2004), points out how habitus can exclude some commonly shared practices, familiar to cultural groups to which a person belongs. For example, a working-class individual is more likely to make a virtue out of necessity than attempt to achieve `what is already denied' (Bourdieu, 1990a, p. 54). Habitus is viewed as a complex 'multi-layered' mechanism through which 'everyday experiences emanate'. Choices that lie at the heart of habitus, are limited by the external forces (social realities) that actors finds themselves in. Moreover, actors are further constrained by 'an internal framework that makes some choices 'inconceivable, others improbable and a limited range acceptable' (Reay, 2004; Skeggs, 1997).

Young people, for instance, tend to express their habitus when they make cultural and leisure lifestyle choices (albeit within the parameters of their social class, gender, ethnic and other socio-cultural conditions). However, there is a view among sociologists, that as young people's lives become increasingly individualized throughout late modernity, young people themselves can reflexively and consciously 'self-socialize' by choosing groups that can shape their identities in ways they wish to be shaped (Bourdieu, 1984; Roberts, 2009: 21). This view is manifest in the daily lives of an increasing number of young people – specifically those from disadvantaged social backgrounds – in their decisions to go to university, because of the value or 'capital' they might place in HE as a passport

to better employment opportunities, despite the trend of increasing graduate under-employment (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Hartas, 2014; ONS, 2013a; Roberts, 2009).

Its obvious appeal to contemporary sociologists notwithstanding, there are two main criticisms of habitus as a concept (see, for example, Reay, 2004) intended to depict the predispositions that lie behind routine attitudes, thoughts and behaviours. The first is that Bourdieu has simply invented a new term – habitus – which, in effect, provides an umbrella for a range of established (and, arguably, more useful and measurable) concepts such as assets, attitudes, habits, socialization and so forth. At the same time, and in the process, Bourdieu stands accused of giving an old term a new meaning by substituting the Latin term *habitus* for the hitherto orthodox term, *habit* (see Camic, 1986). In other words, the concept of habitus is 'old wine in a new bottle'. The second criticism is the teleological nature or circularity of the concept. In this regard, Reay (2004) contends that a considerable amount of research simply references habitus rather than operationalizes the concept. Roberts (2012), points out that there is no means by which the 'postulated entities' of habitus can be observed. Although, it is claimed to be manifest in how actors behave and the views they express (which are observed). The actor's habitus is subsequently hypothesized from these observations before then used to provide an explanation of the observations, 'which is circular and therefore unsatisfactory' (Roberts, 2012: 106). This unresolvable criticism notwithstanding, the concept of habitus remains extremely popular among sociologists not least because it is 'user-friendly' and the kind of sociological postulate that can be retained for explanatory purposes 'unless or until alternatives offer more powerful and plausible explanations' (Roberts, 2012: 106).

Thus, the present study attempts to operationalize habitus as a methodological and analytical tool in order to understand how university students use their time during leisure, specifically drinking alcohol as a part of their day-to-day lives.

2.13.3 Capital

The concept of capital is frequently understood in the economic sense, to refer to 'any assets that can be invested with a view to accumulation and profit' (Green, 2010, p. 25). Sociologically, it is deployed in terms of social and cultural capital, although, variants of these include physical, sporting, identity and symbolic capital. Social capital consists of social relationships in which (keeping with the economic analogy), people are said to 'invest'. For instance, relationships that constitute social capital tend to have value and provide some advantage, in the sense that they facilitate opportunities – rather than pull strings as they are commonly assumed to do in 'popular folk explanations' - for access to employment and membership of particular clubs (Roberts, Kamruzzaman, & Tholen, 2009b).

On the other hand, cultural capital is an amalgam of skills, beliefs, knowledge, predispositions, tastes and values that young people gain in their particular milieu (Bourdieu, 1984; Roberts, 2001). Moreover, these serve as a kind of cultural currency (Field, 2003). Cultural capital is often grounded in particular class-based lifestyles, cultural capital is typically a commodity of early socialization (Kew, 1997). Cultural capital, both literally and metaphorically, becomes embodied in young people's dispositions, skills and abilities; in other words, their habituses. Moreover, social networks and groups foster shared cultural capital and experience for young people. Indeed, the generation of capital is an inevitable feature of all

their social networks. This leads to shared knowledge and outlooks, and constitutes group habitus (Elias, 2000).

While all young people possess varying degrees of social and cultural capital, differences tend to lay not so much in the amounts of capital each possesses but rather in the types and how valuable these prove to be in particular social settings, such as leisure and education (Roberts, 2001). Interestingly, if and when leisure-related cultural capital is embedded early on in life.

> Life-course effects on leisure during young people's transitions to adulthood appear impervious, almost completely unresponsive, to changes in the macro-economic and political contexts' (Roberts, 2009, p. 276).

Of course, there are interrelationships between social and cultural capital in various dimensions of young people's lives. For example, there is evidence that involvement with voluntary sporting, arts and other organizations (such as the church) when young, can lead to further integration into social institutions such as school and the workplace. The medium for this may well be the social capital that young people (on upward life trajectories) acquire within these social networks (Roberts, 2008). Similarly, in a sporting context, (Pichler & Wallace, 2007) study into patterns of social capital in Europe, found that young people in Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands had the highest levels of all forms of social capital coupled with of the highest rates of youth sport participation. Moreover, Engstrom's (2008) study of sport habitus and exercise habits in later life found an almost five-fold greater likelihood that an individual with 'very high' cultural capital at the age of 15 (defined by their social background and grades in

school subjects) would still be an active exerciser 38 years later in comparison with an individual with 'very low' cultural capital (Green, 2010). In short, it would appear that

> those who acquire the most leisure capital during childhood, will be the most likely to build on these foundations during the next life stage (Roberts et al., 2009a, p. 274).

2.13.4 Friends and peers

The term friend refers to those individuals whose company young people choose and actively seek, and with whom they choose to develop mutual, emotional and reciprocal bonds. Peers, by contrast, can be defined as young people's 'social equals' (Green, 2010, p. 198). They share social statuses and/or characteristics such as age, educational background or sports club membership (James & James, 2009). As young people move from childhood into adolescence, there tends to be some loosening of the parent-child relationship, and the balance of significance in their lives shifts towards friends and peers, and away from parents and family**.** This process is further bolstered as they approach and negotiate the youth life-stage when other young people and youth culture become important points of reference (James & James, 2009).

Young people increasingly exchange both the emotional and social supports during the transition into adolescence - previously provided by the family - for those provided for by their friends, and with both individuals and friendship groups comprising their peers' (James & James, 2009, p. 96). Indeed, the transition through teenage years is notorious for generating tensions - the growing role of

the peer group becomes a greater significance on young people's choices compared with parental influence - frequently involve 'clashes between the continuing role of parents as a major source of advice and that of friends' (Feinstein, Bynner, & Duckworth, 2005, p. 1; 2007).

While peers generally play a more and more prominent role in young people's day-to-day lives, their friends in particular, tend to become the single most prominent influence in their daily lives (Carter et al., 2003). This is because, in the main, young people 'place high importance on belonging, on being included, on being "normal", and on being part of a group' (Reay et al., 2005; Shildrick et al., 2009). Therefore, of primary concern for many young people, is the making and keeping of their friendship groups. Young people tend to invest a great amount of their time and energy nurturing their friendship groups, and in order to make new friends and keep friends, continually evaluate the shared attitudes and practices of the social group. This can be measured in terms of how much time they spend together (James & James, 2009). Indeed, Zuzanek's (2005) international review of adolescent time use showed that young people spend relatively large periods of time in the company of friends and peers, and 'interacting with friends' was consistently the most popular of their daily activities. Moreover, youth is a life-stage in which young people pursue increased autonomy and independence. However, because their friendship groups and subsequent sociability are so important to them, many youngsters are keen to become independent in socially acceptable ways; that is to say, ways that are acceptable to both friends and peers. The desire to feel they belong and are accepted within the group means that friends, in particular, act as 'a form of reflected appraisal for a youngster'

(Brustad, Vilhjmalsson, & Fonseca, 2008, p. 360) and provide an influential setting for the shaping and validation of their tastes and identities (Jones, 2009).

In terms of their happiness and well-being, young people appreciate that being among like-minded people and being central to such friendship groups is likely to make them happy and that such happiness can be contagious (Fowler & Christakis, 2008). Indeed, Zuzanek (2005, p. 408) notes: 'the emotional correlates of socializing with friends' includes a sense of happiness and less boredom.

Notwithstanding the significance of the company of their friends, young people have tended to report less participation in social leisure activities since the late 1990s (Gershuny, 2003; Gershuny & Fisher, 1999; Zuzanek, 2005). In countries such as Australia, Finland, the Netherlands, Norway and the USA this appears due to youngsters re-modeling their spare time from social activities - to more *privatized* leisure activities (Rojek, 2000) - particularly watching television, (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Marshall et al., 2006; Osterbacka & Zick, 2009; Serrano-Sanchez et al., 2011), additional hours of paid work or going 'on-line'.

This latter use of time is particularly salient because young people increasingly engage with their social networks and friendship groups in ways that do not require face-to-face contact. Through the use of social media (mainly Facebook and Twitter), they commune with both friends and peers 'on-line' and join virtual communities of other young people they may never meet in person – in other words, the 'social networking' lifestyles outlined in the first section of this chapter (Buckingham, 2008; Livingstone, 2002; Ridout et al., 2012). These virtual communities afford young people the mechanism to create and/or re-invent their

identities rather than simply take them as a given from their past (Roberts, 2009). While some argue that such uses of modern technologies are changing the nature of friendship as Roberts noted:

> Communications technology (the Internet and the telephone) may simply add another dimension to relationships with other bases rather than fundamentally changing the character of young people's networks (Roberts, 2009, p. 134).

Ultimately, it would be difficult to over-estimate the significance for their lives, of young people's relationships with friends and peers and this is particularly so in relation to their engagement with leisure activities. However, young people and the activities they and their social groups engage in are never far from the gaze of adults. This is outlined in the following section on moral panic.

2.13.5 Moral panic

The term 'moral panic' refers to a process by which the general public becomes anxious about and/or takes offence at a particular social phenomenon. Often amplified in the mass media and based upon limited evidence, moral panics characteristically involve a collective public reaction out of proportion to the event(s) to which they are a response. To this extent, moral panics are perceived as threatening normative values and practices (Jones, 2009), social phenomena such as drug use and 'binge' drinking become generalized into threats to society at large (Welch, Price, & Yankey, 2002), requiring an urgent response (Lawson & Garrod, 2003). Therefore, in presenting them as 'folk devils', moral panic leads to

more generalized panic about specific groups (e.g. young people, immigrants, drug-users, binge-drinkers and students) as a whole (Cohen, 1972; Jones, 2009).

The process of moral panic is centered on the mass media, who in both their choice and depiction of 'newsworthy' stories (combined with their own ideological perspectives and commercial interests), tend to present distorted, often sensationalized and stereotypical images of their target groups (Green, 2010). For example, young peoples' activities outside the family home (street-based leisure) have been a concern for parents and the focus for the mainstream media, specifically for those youngsters in their mid to late teens, as they develop towards more independence from their parents and spend more time with their peers doing peer-based activities (France, 2007; Jones, 2009).

One of the most recent concerns around young people's leisure is their sedentariness and propinquity for screen-based leisure activities (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Marshall et al., 2006). This is subsequently espoused as a causal factor in a nationwide obesity epidemic (BHF, 2000, 2004, 2009; Torsheim et al., 2010). Currently, concerns are specifically focused, around young people spending increasing amounts of time using new media and less time doing physical activity and/or sport. This is alleged to have led to media-oriented (so-called 'couch-potato'), increasingly sedentary lifestyles. This concern is generally described as being 'bad for health' and at the root of a growing obesity epidemic, alongside increasing physical complaints reported for young people, particularly in Western countries (BHF, 2000, 2004, 2009; Torsheim et al., 2010).

Moreover, community-based concerns around issues such as the 'studentification' of residential areas in towns and cities have also focused the media spotlight on this specific group of young people as a source of problems and trouble for existing residents within the community (Allison, 2006; Smith & Hubbard, 2014; UUK, 2006). The effects of large concentrations of students tend to be dependent on the viewer (UUK, 2006). Indeed, while the benefits of a large student population are often described in a broad sense and are not clearly definable, disadvantages tend to be narrower, and more clearly definable (Allison, 2006; Smith & Hubbard, 2014; UUK, 2014). Typically, these issues are grounded in economic and socio-cultural concerns. For example, in terms of the economics, residents can be concerned about the effects on property prices, and the changing nature of the community as family houses are converted into homes of multiple occupancy (HMOs), densely concentrated, and students are subsequently concentrated into specific residential areas. The socio-cultural concerns tend to be centered on increases in low-level anti-social behaviour such as noise, vandalism and vomiting or urinating in streets (UUK, 2006).

Indeed, these visible developments in young people's educational aspirations, working practices, and outdoor leisure activities are contributing factors for a moral panic focused on students, and specifically in the role of young women. According to France (2007), the 'girl question' has arisen from the 'crisis' of modernity and concerns over social change on the lives of girls. For example, increases in young women's employment since the 1950s, combined with growth in leisure goods and services specifically aimed at young women has challenged the 'natural' roles and responsibilities of young women. Moreover, the feminist movement has brought about changes in UK legislation with regard to equal pay,

contraception, abortion and divorce law. However, in some aspects, concerns around the 'girl question' have intensified, particularly with their involvement in popular culture and development from private to public spheres. Indeed, in terms of HE participation, it is young women who tend to form the largest section of the student population with 34 per cent of young women (aged up to 20 years) entering HE in 2012-13, compared with 26 per cent of young men of the same age in the same year (UUK, 2014).

Often demonized or mocked in some elements of the British media, the modern young woman is sometimes defined as 'troublesome' and has attracted the label 'ladette' (Jackson & Tinkler, 2007). Indeed, the rise of the 'ladette' as a discourse is an example of how the popular press in particular negatively portray young women in terms of their drinking and sexuality (in terms of easy virtue) in what Jackson and Tinkler (2007), refer to as 'striking gender double standards'. Indeed, the media-led portrayal of young women in this way epitomizes how some aspects of young people's leisure lives can be 'whipped up' into social issues (France, 2007; Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Plant, 2008; Rudolfsdottir & Morgan, 2009).

In morally evaluating particular behaviours and norms, media and political caricatures of 'folk devils' – such as drunk students or obese and sedentary youngsters – serve to reinforce an adult tendency to hold a negative view of young people and characterize them 'as rebellious, irresponsible and prone to display problematic behaviour' (Minnebo & Eggermont, 2007, p. 131). From 'teddy boys' through 'mods and rockers' to 'skinheads', football hooligans, 'hoodies' and drug-addicts at different times, in different places and circumstances, various groups of young people have been seen as in some way or other abnormal or deviant

(through an adult gaze), representing a challenge to the existing social order. Indeed, negative media coverage defines deviancy in relation to normative contours and, in the process of clarifying and emphasizing the contrast, tends to not only reaffirm interpretation of particular behaviours as deviant but also consolidate the behaviour among the folk devils themselves (Jones, 2009).

2.14 Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to provide an outline of the social processes and developments in youth leisure in late modernity, highlighting important changes in aspects of youth leisure, and developments in the underlying social processes. It has sought to identify and conceptualize the concept of youth, and where this concept is located within the life-course.

The chapter has also reviewed some of the key literature in relation to aspects of youth leisure (namely, the implications of recent developments in the fields of education and employment, the leisure careers of youngsters, their propensity towards sport and physical activity and their propinquity with alcohol, tobacco and drugs). However, the tendency for youth research to focus on single aspects of young people's lives such as the aforementioned activities is evidently a pervasive one. To understand student's lives and how they spend their time, it is important to grasp their life-course transitions and the underlying social processes that have shaped their biographies. Snapshots of single aspects of their leisure are inevitably limited in this sense, and fail to take into account the interplay between individuals and the societies they comprise (Dunning and Hughes, 2013; Elias, 1978). In the case of university students, the contexts of their day-to-day lives are comparatively unique as a sub-group within a wider youth population, especially,

for those who move out of the parental home to undertake their university careers. It is the combination of a focus on students and how they use their time that sets the premise for a more adequate understanding of their day-to-day lives in the round.

In addition, the chapter has reviewed some of the key theoretical concepts and frameworks, which have guided this analysis of university students' leisure lives, in particular, and youth lifestyles, more generally. In particular, the concepts of: identity; socialization and habitus; capital and moral panic and how they have been deployed in previous sociological research into young peoples' leisure lives. The present study draws on these concepts and seeks to answer the following key research questions:

(i) How do university students *actually* spend their time?
(ii) How do their leisure careers develop as they progress through university, year on year?
(iii) What, if any, is the effect on students' lives (and their leisure careers, in particular) of living in the parental home or living away from home during their university careers?
(iv) How might we explain students' day-to-day leisure lives?

The next chapter describes the methodological perspectives used in the present study to generate the data used to answer these questions.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and explain the research strategy, study design and methods deployed, to address the aims and objectives of the research. The process of conducting this research, which utilised mixed methods, was in two phases: a longitudinal quantitative analysis of students' time use data; and a longitudinal qualitative analysis of their narratives and interactions. The management of ethical considerations throughout the study are also explained in detail. The overarching aim of the research was to undertake a robust and ethically sound sociological analysis of how university students spend their time alongside understanding the various influences (particularly term-time residential status) that might shape university students' leisure lives, particularly their relationship with alcohol. Students' leisure lives were examined in-the-round; that is to say, through a comprehensive examination of all activities in which students participated in their daily lives, rather than focusing on one type of activity in isolation. First, the chapter discusses the underpinning philosophies and debates in social research that informed the methodological stance of this research. Second, the process of carrying out the research is explained in detail.

3.2. Qualitative and quantitative approaches

Social research covers a plethora of disciplines, and the various aims or objectives of any single piece of research are highly specific to the various perspectives. However, there are important methodological conventions that should be considered before embarking on a study. The main approaches to social research

are usually discussed in terms of a quantitative paradigm, a qualitative paradigm or a combination of both approaches, which is called a mixed-method approach. Decisions about which approach to use are guided by the research questions (Bryman, 2012).

A quantitative paradigm is associated with a natural science approach and is generally deductive, in theoretical terms. This approach has distinct epistemological and ontological assumptions. Epistemology refers to what is considered to be adequate knowledge in a discipline, and how knowledge is generated or confirmed through research. Ontology, on the other hand, refers to the nature and/or the 'reality' of the social world and how this 'reality' is interpreted (Bryman, 2012). Quantitative approaches tend to be concerned with the measurement of phenomena and the testing of theories or hypotheses, alongside describing the phenomena. Positivism is viewed as the application of the scientific quantitative method to the social world. In other words, some social phenomena can be empirically studied using the senses, and this provides an adequate basis for generating knowledge about the social world. Moreover, on ontological terms, social reality can, be adequately understood through this objectivist stance. That is to say, social reality can be understood as external to the researcher (Bryman, 2012; De Vaus, 2001; Gray, 2005; Punch, 2005).

By contrast, a qualitative paradigm is distinguished by an interpretivist epistemological stance; that is to say, not all knowledge of the social world is (nor can it be), objective. Qualitative researchers, place greater emphasis on what might be called a participant's subjective 'reality', and are concerned with how social actors interpret their social world (Bryman, 2012). The underpinning

ontological assumption is that researchable phenomena can indeed include those entities, which are based on the subjective interpretations and actions of social actors. Qualitative research is not predominantly concerned with measurement, and in terms of the relationship with theory, it is said to be inductive. In other words, the data are used to generate theory (Bryman, 2012; De Vaus, 2001; Gray, 2005; Punch, 2005).

Notwithstanding the distinctions between quantitative and qualitative approaches to social research, it is worth noting that these methodological paradigms are not without some common ground, and distinctions can be exaggerated. For example, according to Bryman (2012), one frequent distinction often cited, is how patterns of behaviour and the underlying meanings or social processes in the milieu, correspond or seem to be a good fit with specific quantitative and qualitative approaches. Indeed, there are many examples of quantitative methods being used to gather data on subjective meanings, the use of Likert scales in attitudinal measurement being one. Accordingly, there are examples of how qualitative researchers quasi-quantify in their findings, by using terms such as 'many', 'often' and 'some' (Bryman, 2012). The point is that proponents of both approaches may indeed benefit from the similarities and/or areas of common ground between quantitative and qualitative methods in undertaking social research, rather than what might be described as a false dichotomy, between what sometimes appear as two competing approaches. Any ideological commitment by the researcher to either approach would undoubtedly determine and constrain the range of phenomena they might argue to be researchable. Such implications have witnessed the increasing use of mixed-methods designs, where combinations of quantitative and qualitative approaches are deployed by the researcher.

Ultimately, it is the nature of the research questions which shapes the approach (or set of approaches) deemed most appropriate by the researcher (Bryman, 2012; De Vaus, 2001; Gray, 2005; Punch, 2005). In other words, what approach can be used to answer the research questions?

3.3 Using mixed-methods

On the surface, using a mixed-methods design might seem an ideal strategy for the researcher to bridge the divide between quantitative and qualitative approaches. However, it is not without its critics and should not be viewed as superior to the use of either approach singly (Bryman, 2012). Moreover, the use of single or mixed-methods in social research should ideally be the result of considering the research questions of the specific research, the context of the research and the practical elements of the particular study. As Punch notes:

> Instead of starting from paradigms, I have focussed this book on research which starts from a more pragmatic position, stressing what the research is trying to find out. I have then argued that matters of method follow from that. The important thing is that the research questions and the methods are matched to each other (Punch, 2005, p. 241).

This pragmatic approach by Punch (2005), to the use of methods also takes into account aspects of the 'messiness of social research' by suggesting that it is not always clear what the research questions are in advance of the research, or indeed, ideas and/or research questions might develop from early inquiry or findings. Therefore, it may require the researcher to exhibit some flexibility in use of methods during their research.

The present study set out to investigate the lives of first year university students on terms of how they used their time. It explored their leisure uses and their relationship with alcohol, in order to gain a greater understanding of how their leisure and alcohol use was shaped during their transition to, and, to some extent, through university. Furthermore, the study aimed to understand the underlying social processes that might influence their choices of leisure activities. Therefore, the most appropriate strategy was to use a mixed-methods approach, in order to (i) quantify students' use of time in relation to a broad range of leisure activities, and locate leisure in their daily lives; and (ii) set these findings in context; in other words, add meaning and insight.

To achieve an understanding of how students' used time in their everyday lives, a pre-coded 7-day time use diary was used. These data were measured in units of time (hours/minutes), in order to reveal patterns in how the students' daily lives were structured, and the time used for various leisure activities. Moreover, in order to understand the context of students' developing lives at university, focus groups were used as a means of generating data from participants who had completed the diary. The aim here was to give the quantitative data some meaning and context' thereby providing the researcher with a more adequate understanding of their leisure lives in the round, so to speak. The use of a mixed-methods approach in this manner, to account for both *structure* and *process* has been widely discussed in recent literature (Bryman, 2012; De Vaus, 2001; Punch, 2005).

3.4 Panel studies

Study design was central to the process of addressing the aims and objectives of the study. According to Bryman (2012), there are two main types of longitudinal study design – panel and cohort. Panel studies tend to use a representative sample, and they usually collect data from different types of case within the panel study framework. Therefore a panel can be comprised of participants with a variety of characteristics, such as mixed sex, a broad range of ages, or backgrounds. One noted example is the British Household Panel Survey (Bryman, 2012). Cohort studies, on the other hand, tend to recruit participants with a common characteristic or experience (e.g. born in the same year, being unemployed), and the Millennium Cohort Study is an example (Bryman, 2012; Roberts, 2009). Indeed, Roberts (2006: 27) has noted, youth research 'needs to be longitudinal in perspective, even when the methods are a snapshot'. By implementing a longitudinal element within the design of the study, both continuity and/or developments or changes in behaviour and the underlying process can be measured (Bryman, 2012; MacDonald & Shildrick, 2007; Roberts, 2009). Indeed, perhaps a key to greater understanding of the processes of social change may lie in the more widespread use of longitudinal study designs, such as panel or cohort studies.

Longitudinal designs are renowned for being more expensive to conduct, while being hindered by participant attrition and conditioning effects. Nevertheless, they can inform the researcher with a more adequate insight into both continuity and change over time, because data is collected over two or more points in time (Bryman, 2012). These benefits alone could arguably mitigate any limitations

often cited in cross-sectional study designs in terms of inferring causality and/or the direction of causal inference. In the context of this study, a panel design was chosen because it was the most appropriate design to address the research objective of analyzing developments over time in the students' lives, since starting at the University. For example, a primary research objective was to understand the significance of the term-time residence of first year students, as a potential influence on their leisure activities, specifically their relationship with alcohol. This relationship, and indeed many other leisure activities, might change over a relatively short period of time, based on: (i) the change in residential circumstances for a number of youngsters as they move away from the parental home, in many cases, for the first time; (ii) new social networks of friends; (iii) the increasing academic workload as students' progress through the undergraduate process; (iv) adapting to different learning methods and (v) moving from the 'university umbrella' to the private-rented sector in subsequent academic years. Students might find themselves in a milieu that is novel, exciting and dynamic. Accordingly, collecting data from them at specific points in time may provide a more adequate insight into any potential development of their relationship with alcohol and/or leisure in general. In essence, a panel study could facilitate the identification of students' leisure repertoires and their biographies over time. Combined with the longitudinal perspective that a panel study can bring, was a cross-sectional perspective – at two specific points in time a snapshot was taken.

3.4.1 Time use studies and development of the diary

Time use studies, where diaries are used to collect data, have a well-documented history, originating in the study of the daily lives of Russian peasant farmers in

the late 19th century (Gershuny, 2011). In the UK, the Fabian Society commissioned Maud Pember-Reeves to conduct a study of working-class housewives and their daily lives in London in the early 20th century, using a similar diary methodology to the earlier Russian study. Data from her study were published in 1912 and provided insight into the daily life and budgeting of poor families (Pember-Reeves, 1912). Advances in computing technology, and a United Nations-led initiative in the late 1960s, precipitated the development of a standardized time use diary known as the Multinational Time Use Study (MTUS) (Szalai, 1966). Subsequent developments, such as the Harmonized European Time Use Study (HETUS) have continued this process of standardization of diaries, and this has facilitated international comparisons in time use research (Gershuny, 2011; Gershuny & Fisher, 1999; Kenyon, 2010).

Both MTUS and HETUS formats have remained the model for subsequent time use studies, including several small-scale UK studies (Gershuny, 2011; Gershuny & Fisher, 1999; Kenyon, 2010), For example, the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), undertook a time use study in 1987 using the HETUS model on a sample of 800 households over one week. Similarly, the BBC have sponsored several audience research studies of a similar size (the 1984 BBC Daily Life Survey) using diaries (Gershuny, 2011; Gershuny & Sullivan, 1998). However, the only official large-scale UK diary study was organized by the Office for National Statistics, using an instrument based on the HETUS model (ONS, 2000).

The design of any diary tends to follow one of two distinct paradigms, in that some diaries rely on the words of the participants in freeform text, which requires subsequent coding. Others, including this study, are structured and rely on pre-coded responses that have been designed to specifically address the research objectives. Within both of these paradigms, diaries can be further distinguished in terms of when they are completed by the participants. For example, if events or activities are recorded by participants as they occur or prospectively, they are called tomorrow diaries. On the other hand, if participants record events and activities retrospectively, they are called 'yesterday diaries'. In reality, diaries may well be completed both retrospectively and prospectively, the limitations of which are discussed in Chapter 12.

In the context of the present study, the design of the diary as a valid and reliable instrument to collect the data was paramount to the outcome of the study, and careful consideration was given to well-documented issues that are inherent in time use research. Issues of time use diary design and administration include the following: (i) Is the diary based on variable observation intervals (measuring the start and finish times of episodes of activity) or, as in the present study, fixed intervals (which are typically between 2 and 30 minutes long); (ii) Does the diary measure multitasking or multiple activities? If it does use multiple activity fields, are these hierarchical or parallel? Most multiple activity studies require participants to designate simultaneous activities as either primary or secondary, as in this study; (iii) does the diary use location or co-presence fields? (iv) Does the diary use any subjective or affect fields, such as the participants perception of their current mood (Gershuny, 2011; Kenyon, 2010).

Furthermore, it was necessary to achieve a balance between the weight of information required from the diary, and the effort required from students to complete the diary accurately. With all of these issues in mind, the design that was judged to be most valid and reliable was based on the MTUS design, of which a section is illustrated in Figure 3.3. This specific example uses multiple activity fields, which measure simultaneous activities. The participants are asked to designate what was a primary or secondary activity prior to starting the diary. The fixed intervals are of 10 minutes duration. This specific format also uses location and co-presence fields, and there are no affect fields requiring participants to indicate their mood or other subjective data. Finally, the example in Figure 3.4.1 is a free text type of diary that requires participants to use their own words to record events and activities, and is simply indicative of the format that informed the initial design for the instrument used in this study (CTUR, 2013; Gershuny, 2011).

Figure 3.4.1 Example of a page from a diary based on the MTUS design.

Date Date Month Early Morning Time, am	What were you doing? *Please record your main activity for each 10-minute period.* *Enter one main activity on each line.*	What else were you doing? *Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time* *e.g. Looking after children, listening to the radio or having a drink*	Where were you? *e.g. At home, at friends, in car, on bus, train, cycling, walking*	Were you with anybody? *Please mark the boxes. See example on page 3.* Alone or with people you don't know / Children up to 9 living in your household / Children aged 10 to 14 living in your household / Other household members / Other persons that you know
4:00 - 4:10				
4:10 - 4:20				
4:20 - 4:30				
4:30 - 4:40				
4:40 - 4:50				
4:50 - **5:00**				
5:00 - 5:10				
5:10 - 5:20				
5:20 - 5:30				
5:30 - 5:40				
5:40 - 5:50				
5:50 - **6:00**				
6:00 - 6:10				
6:10 - 6:20				
6:20 - 6:30				
6:30 - 6:40				
6:40 - 6:50				
6:50 - **7:00**				

This format was used to develop a pre-coded version of the diary, which would be as informative as possible, but not cause undue fatigue throughout the 7 day data collection period. The aim was to minimize error due to inaccuracy and/or poor diary keeping, and increase validity and reliability of the data recorded. Therefore, activities, locations and co-presence were pre-coded, and relevant terms were adopted to reflect university students' daily lives, as far as was possible. According to Gershuny (2011), this 'light diary' design has been used several times by the ONS for small-scale studies in 1995, 2000 and 2003. The pre-piloted diary was designed with 26 pre-coded activities and 15 location codes.

Students were also asked to complete a daily expenses table, which was positioned alongside the time use fields on each day of the diary. The reason for

doing this was to examine students' day-to-day spending habits, and understand how their finances might shape aspects of their leisure lives, specifically, alcohol consumption. The data collected was in £s Sterling, and students were asked to round-up or down their entries to the nearest £ (the resulting data, although informative in providing an overview of their day-to-day spending, has not been presented the final thesis.

Following a pilot test of the diary (discussed further in section 3.4.2), further developments were undertaken, and the final version was produced for the main study. The final version used 35 pre-coded activity codes and 26 location codes, and these are shown in Appendix 1.

Consideration was also given to the number of days students would be asked to record data in the diary, termed the 'reference period'. For example, some studies collect data using single-day, or multiple-day diaries that collect data either on a week-day or a weekend-day, which can limit the usefulness of the information depending on the nature of the research. As Gershuny noted:

> If everyone went to church, but only on a Sunday, a single-day time use survey that randomly selected days of the week, would only get a participation rate in church of one in seven people. As a result, studies can produce accurate estimates of mean times in activities for samples and subgroups, but potentially misleading pictures of the distribution of these activities across the sample/population (Gershuny, 2011, p. 8).

In the context of this study, the University timetabling structure was viewed as potentially imposing constraints on the accessibility of some activities to some students in the study. For example, for undergraduates the University tended not to timetable any formally taught lectures or seminars on Wednesday afternoons, where possible. This time-slot was historically used by the University sports clubs and societies, as the time for their practice sessions and some game fixtures. Therefore, the level of sporting activity and/or physical exercise recorded by students on a Wednesday might not be typical of the students, and might be unreliable. The same applied to other leisure pursuits including alcohol-centered student nights out, which were also historically structured (led by local business that comprised the night time economy) [NTE] on specific nights of the week (mainly week-days) to encourage the patronage of students, and compensate for quieter nights during the week.

Moreover, findings in many time use studies on young people, and the general population show how week-day activities tend to differ in frequency and duration compared with weekend-day leisure activities (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Biddle, Marshall, Gorely, & Cameron, 2009; Gorely et al., 2004; Innis & Shaw, 1997). To alleviate these potential shortcomings, an instrument based on a reference period of 7 days (Monday – Sunday) during a 'typical' term-time week was developed, to capture patterns of leisure activities that more adequately reflected the reality of students' lives. Further to extending the reference period to a 7 day format, the fixed time intervals were increased to 30 minutes. The corollary was, although some of the finer daily detail was lost, the data might reveal a more valid overall insight into students' leisure lives. Moreover, it was deemed unreasonable to

overburden undergraduate students with recording their diary data every 10 minutes, such as in the diary example illustrated in Figure 3.4.1. Therefore, the 7 day diary format with 30 minute fixed intervals was judged to be a reasonable compromise (CTUR, 2013).

Alongside providing both time use and a daily budget of their expenses, students were asked to complete a questionnaire, with 18 responses designed to ascertain their key socio-demographic characteristics such as: sex; age; term-time residence (PH or NPH); and, family HE background (first or second generation). Term-time residence was defined by whether they lived in their parental home during term-time, or, they 'lived away' in either university-managed or private-rented accommodation. This distinction then formed the basis for students being categorized as either PH (parental home), or, NPH (non-parental home). Other key variables such as student's educational backgrounds and the proxy used as a measure of their social-class were derived from similarly key variables addressed by the SOMUL study (Brennan, Edmunds, Houston, Jary, Lebeau, Osborne and Richardson, 2009).

3.4.2 The research setting

The research was undertaken at one of the oldest institutions of higher education in the North West of England. The institution achieved full university status in 2005 and is one of the so-called 'post-92' universities. With a student population of around 18,000 spread across multiple campuses, it was the main campus that was the setting for the research. The University main campus is situated close to the outskirts of the city center (approximately a 5-10 minute walk) and benefits from

a considerable proportion of its student accommodation being situated either on, or, adjacent to the main campus. The City has a 'usual resident population' of approximately 93,000 (ONS, 2011) and strong links with the University and student population.

3.4.3 Piloting the time use diary

Following the development of the time use/budget diary, it was deemed necessary to pilot the instrument to test both validity and reliability for use with a student sample in the main study. The pilot was carried out with eight second-year student volunteers, who were living in the same shared residence, adjacent to the main university campus. These eight students were known to the researcher and were keen to be involved in the pilot. The students were given a briefing by the researcher, lasting about 15 minutes to explain how to complete the diary. Students were also given an evaluation form to assess their experience in using the diary, and utilise any suggestions that could improve the diary or make it easier to complete. During the pilot, the students and researcher were in daily contact through using the social networking site Facebook. Using Facebook proved to be a useful medium for fast, and effective communication as the eight students were all avid users of this social media site. They were offered email, mobile telephony and texting as alternatives, but unanimously selected Facebook as their preferred means of communication with the researcher for the duration of the pilot.

Seven of the eight student volunteers completed the diary, as well as the pilot evaluation forms. There were inevitably some lessons learned from the pilot, and this resulted in further development of the diary. These included: (i) the inclusion

of the daily budget table alongside the activity pages for each day, as an aid to students to remember to complete it as they went along; (ii) the inclusion of additional activity and location codes to cover more aspects of students' daily activities; (iii) the amendment of some activity and/or location codes to minimise ambiguities; (iv) the inclusion of a separate code sheet to use as a 'bookmarker' on the diary day that students were currently completing; and (v) level of rapport necessary between the researcher and students (e.g. offering prompt and clear responses to queries) required to achieve successful completion of the diary. The researcher and supervisory team were under no illusion of the challenge involved in, first, recruiting participants to the study, and, second, keeping them interested and maintaining their participation. The students who completed the pilot appeared 'at ease' with the researcher, and made regular contact with the researcher (and vice versa) via Facebook, to voice their suggestions and/or progress with the diaries. However, for ethical reasons it was decided that Facebook was not an appropriate medium for communication during the main study, as it contravened cross-participant confidentiality. Accordingly, rolling out the appropriate level of support to a larger group of first year students, with no familiarity with the researcher or indeed the university itself would have been a continual challenge.

An example of the final version of the diary is also shown in Appendix 2, and a mock-up of a partly completed page from the final version is illustrated in Figure 3.4.2.

Figure 3.4.2 Mock-up of data entries to the final version of the time use diary

Day 1	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, in the SU Bar, In town, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4					Day 1 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Evening				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**	**Item description**	**£**
19:00-19:30	02	14	G		X				Clothes, shoes, accessories	
19:30-20:00	02	14	G		X				Phone bills	
20:00-20:30	22	18	L	X					Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
20:30-21:00	22	18	L	X					Toiletries	
21:00-21:30	06	18	C				X		Music, DVD downloads	
21:30-22:00	26	30			X		3X		Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
22:00-22:30									Cigarettes and tobacco	3
22:30-23:00									Prescriptions, medicines	
23:00-23:30					X				Snacks	3
23:30-00:00	05	26	D				3X		Miscellaneous small items	2
00:00-00:30	05	26	D				3X		Alcohol consumed outside the home	
00:30-01:00	04	04	B	X					Alcohol bought for home	5
01:00-01:30									Cinema, theatre, concerts	
01:30-02:00									Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	

3.4.4 Recruiting students to the panel

A non-probability, purposive sampling strategy was deployed to recruit first year students from the 2011/12 intake at the University to the panel. Although the study was primarily concerned with young people's leisure lives, it was decided that mature students (those aged 21 and over) would not be excluded, because, (i) they would be a rich source of data in terms of comparison with younger students, and, (ii) the nature of the recruitment strategy would have required the researcher to select out these potential participants during the first point of contact, and this was deemed both messy and unethical. Panel size was discussed at an early meeting between the researcher and the full supervisory team, and it was judged that for a meaningful comparison of students by term-time residence, the study required the second time point of data collection from a panel of 40 students. Ideally, the panel would be comprised of 10 males and 10 females living in the parental home (PH), and 10 males and 10 females living in a non-parental (NPH) home during term-time. However, it was recognised that it would be necessary to recruit more students at the initial stage of the study to compensate for the inevitable sample attrition.

3.4.4.1 Using incentives to engage participants and reduce attrition

The use of monetary incentives, in their various forms, is a well-documented and commonly used strategy within social research to improve response rates in surveys, and participant recruitment more generally. However, it is a strategy not without criticism, particularly from an ethical perspective (Grady, 2005; Grant & Sugarman, 2004; Singer & Couper, 2008).

Ethical criticisms of the use of incentives in research take the following forms: (i) they may constitute 'undue influence' or coercive inducement to participate; (ii) they may obscure the risks in participation; (iii) they may influence the recording of data in that participants may feel obliged to report what they judge the researcher wants to find from the research (Grady, 2005; Grant & Sugarman, 2004; Singer & Couper, 2008). These issues notwithstanding, the pervasiveness of small incentives to, and rewards for participation in social research of this kind is well-established, particularly in student studies. Moreover, the amount of commitment required to complete the 7 day diary and attend a focus group on both two separate occasions over 12 months, was judged to be a big commitment on the part of students who consented to participate. Therefore the decision was made to use a monetary incentive, which would be discussed at the first point of contact with students, at their lectures. The level of incentive was set at £25 worth of Tesco vouchers, which were the unanimous choice of the students who completed the pilot study, because of the range of items that could be purchased with them in a single store. The value of the vouchers was deemed to be 'in-line' with the norm for studies conducted in similar settings and at the University in particular.

3.4.4.2 Invitation to participate and follow up

Permission was obtained from heads of departments (HoD) across the institution, and, subsequently from module leaders and/or individual lecturers. This was initially organized by one of the supervisors in his capacity as a HoD at the University, in the form of an email to other HoDs at the University, outlining the study and recruitment requirements of the researcher. Correspondence from this point onwards was directly between the researcher and HoDs via email. The main

objective was to encourage students from all faculties to participate in the study. With one exception, the HoDs unanimously gave their permission for the researcher to contact programme leaders, module leaders and lecturers.

The process of recruiting participants to the panel commenced at first-year lectures, in the form of a short PowerPoint presentation by the researcher – the slides for the presentation are shown in Appendix 3. This initial point of contact with potential participants was critical, both in attracting enough students to consent to participate, as well as establishing the balance of necessary 'rapport' and professionalism.

The format for recruitment at each lecture remained consistent across the period of recruitment. At the end of each lecture, the researcher was given time (approximately 10 minutes) to explain the project via the PowerPoint presentation which outlined the study, informed students what participating in the research would involve and the incentive provided. Consent-to-be-contacted slips were handed out to any students who intimated their interest in participating. An example of the consent-to-be-contacted' slip is shown in Appendix 4. Students who were interested in participating then signed the consent-to-be-contacted slip including their contact details. Figure 3.4.3 illustrates the order of flow in the stages in recruiting students to the panel, highlighting the numbers of students at each stage.

The initial presentation was given to approximately 950 first year students from the 2011/12 intake over the course of three weeks at 23 separate lectures. Lectures and times were identified pragmatically in terms of the researcher's

availability and convenience to the lecturers. One aspect of managing data was to give each student a unique identifier for the purpose of anonymity as well as to allow tracking from 2012 to 2013. This was used on all documentation throughout the study (such as consent forms, time use diary and focus group schedules). Each student who completed a consent-to-be-contacted slip was entered onto an Excel tracking sheet, which was used as a database of records for each student, and their level of participation throughout the duration of the research. A paper record was also kept for each student to enable the researcher to manage and track every student who engaged with the research process, regardless of whether or not they completed the entire study. Students were then contacted (via their preferred means of contact), by the researcher on the same evening as the lecture, in order to arrange for their attendance at a full briefing meeting where the study would be explained in greater detail. This included the students reading a participant information sheet with further information about the study, which is shown in Appendix 5. During this briefing, full informed consent was obtained from those students who still wanted to participate. The time use diaries were also handed out along with full instructions for completion. An example of the full consent form is shown in Appendix 6. The briefings were held in the University central library, where there are bookable private spaces, holding around 10 people. These spaces (known as Pods) were pre-booked to coincide with lunchtimes, and the timetabled end times of most first-year lectures. Communication between the researcher and students for the duration of the study was, in the main, through the telephone or text, although 18 members of the student panel preferred to communicate through email.

On the surface, the recruitment process attracted more students than was envisaged during the planning phase. However, it became apparent from a preliminary analysis of the respondents' biographical data that there was a limited response from PH students. Indeed, from 140 completed diaries that had been collected by the researcher, only 16 had been completed by PH students (11.4%). It was decided, therefore, that a postal 'invitation to participate' would be sent to those students living in the parental home to increase numbers in this residential sub-group. Notwithstanding, the historically poor response rates to postal surveys (Akl, Maroun, Klocke, Montori, & Schunnemann, 2005; Blumberg, Fuller, & Hare, 1974; Bryman, 2012; Keegan & Lucas, 2005), a mailshot was judged to be the best way to target these students specifically, rather than disrupt first-year lectures further. First year students who lived in their parental home were identified by the University's registry department, and the mailshot went out to the 760 first year students identified as 'living with parents' during the University registration process. The students were sent a pack containing the following documents, which are all shown in the Appendices: an invitation to participate from the researcher including details of the study (see Appendix 7); a consent-to-be-contacted slip (see Appendix 4); and, a stamped/addressed return envelope to return the slips. The packs were posted via the Royal Mail using official university envelopes. These steps are referred to in survey literature as strategies to improve postal response rates (Blumberg et al., 1974; Keegan & Lucas, 2005). However, the mailshot response was poor. From 764 students, there were 9 respondents who returned consent slips (0.7%).

Subsequently, a final invitation to participate was delivered to approximately 150 first years in both clinical sciences, and sport and exercise sciences subject

departments (that had been omitted during the initial recruitment process), following the same procedure outlined at the beginning of this section. The combination of these strategies resulted in a final total of 307 first year students who consented to participate in the study. This resulted in a response rate of 66.1 per cent, based on the ratio of diaries issued and then subsequently completed and received – the following formula illustrates this:

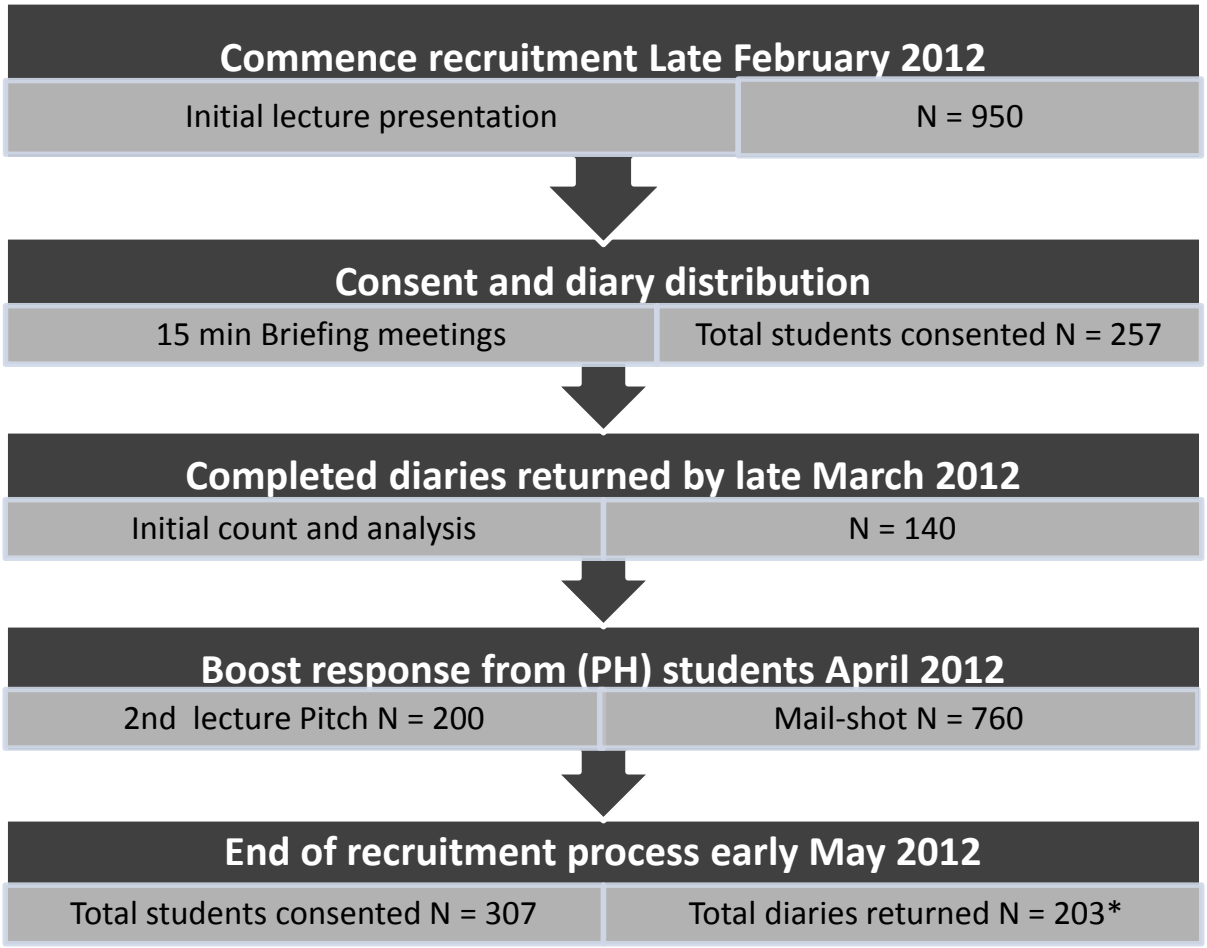
$$\frac{Total\ number\ of\ usable\ diaries\ returned\ to\ the\ researcher = 203}{Number\ of\ diaries\ issued = 307} \times 100$$

The longitudinal aspect of this study required students in the panel to complete a second time use diary, and attend a focus group in 2012 and 2013. The basis for this was to understand how their time use in their everyday lives may have developed as they made the transition through the undergraduate process at the University. Time point two commenced in early February 2013, the process of which was more straightforward compared with that in 2012 because the panel had already been constituted. All 200 members of the student panel recruited in 2012 were contacted to ascertain their interest in continuing with the research. There were 171 students who agreed to participate a second time, and these attended a briefing meeting to give their written consent, and collect a second diary. Following the same procedures outlined earlier for 2012, they completed a second time use diary data collection.

This resulted in 156 completed diaries returned to the researcher. This gives a response rate of 78.0 per cent, based on the number of diaries issued as the formula below illustrates:

$$\frac{Total\ number\ of\ usable\ diaries\ returned\ to\ the\ researcher = 156}{Number\ of\ diaries\ issued = 171} \times 100$$

Figure 3.4.3 Stages of the recruitment process in 2012



***3 diaries were excluded because they were incomplete to the 50% criterion**

Participant attrition was a concern during the research process because of the longitudinal element of the study. An attrition rate of 14.5 per cent at the first phase was calculated thus:

$$\frac{Total\ number\ of\ diaries\ issued\ at\ phase\ two = 171}{Total\ number\ in\ student\ panel\ at\ phase\ one\ = 200} \times 100$$

3.4.5 Time use diary administration

Time use diaries were distributed to students at the third point of contact with the researcher (once they had listened to the full study briefing and given their full consent to participate). Students were also given contact details of the researcher, and were encouraged to use this if they had queries or concerns with any aspect of the study. Indeed, they were particularly encouraged to contact the researcher regarding any doubts or uncertainties with completing the time use diary, because of the potential for inaccuracy in data entry and subsequent threats to validity and reliability of the data.

Accuracy and integrity of data collection were paramount to achieving a valid, reliable and robust study. One strategy is designing an instrument that participants find unproblematic to complete. However, time use diaries inherently tend to generate a large volume of data for each participant (Kenyon, 2010; ONS, 2006). Therefore, following the pilot of the time use diary, it was judged to be less problematic for students to start completing the diary on Day 1 (the first day in the diary) regardless of the actual day of the week they commenced participation. This is important because the diary collected data over a 7 day reference period, and findings from previous studies show that leisure, work and other aspects of

daily life can be different depending on the day of the week (Biddle, Marshall, et al., 2009; CTUR, 2013) – In deed, one central study objective included comparisons of students' leisure lives on both week-days and weekend-days. Moreover, the recruitment process was somewhat protracted because of the use of additional strategies to increase the size of the panel (a period of 8 weeks). One upshot of this was students commenced recording their data (Day 1) on different days throughout the eight weeks. To manage this potential threat to data integrity, the researcher emphasized to each student, the importance of writing the actual date on Day 1 in the diary. This ensured that during the data-entry process (outlined in the subsequent section), the correct diary day (e.g. Day 1 – Day 7) data was entered into the correct datasets, and, these corresponded to actual days of the week (e.g. Monday – Sunday etc). In addition to this, the researcher communicated with the student (via text or email) to ensure this was correct when completed diaries were collected by the researcher. These start dates were also tracked electronically as part of the data management process for each student in the study.

This process allowed the researcher to set alerts in Excel to, (i) contact each student midway through their particular 7 day reference period (via a text or email) to check they were not having any problems or concerns around completing the diary, and, (ii) contact each student on their last day of completing the diary, to make arrangements with them to collect the diary. The diary collection process was, for the majority of students, simply handing their completed diary to the researcher at arranged times in the University central library, although there were some PH students who opted to send their completed diary via the Royal Mail, using a pre-paid and addressed envelope supplied by the researcher.

Finally, the completed diaries were thoroughly checked by the researcher to ensure they had been completed correctly, and all sections contained some data for analysis. However, there were three diaries that were less than 50 per cent completed, and it was judged they were unusable, and, therefore they were excluded from the study (CTUR, 2013).

3.4.6 Time use diary data processing

The raw data from 200 useable and completed diaries were subsequently entered into Excel datasets, and then copied into similar datasets within the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18. This task was completed by the researcher and a research assistant working alongside each other to maintain consistency and to enable checking of data entry. Time use and budget data were separated at this point into manageable datasets based on days of the week (Monday – Sunday).

Time use diaries tend to generate large volumes of data, and each student (case) was associated with 237 variables resulting in a total of 325,400 data-points. To reduce error and threats to data integrity, the SPSS datasets were checked by the researcher and the research assistant for accuracy against students' original diary data. This was achieved by the researcher checking the research assistant's data-entry and vice-versa.

Indeed, the ONS (2006) notes that great care should be taken when interpreting time use data. Therefore, in order to present a clear and coherent picture of patterns of time use over the course of a day, activities were collapsed into seven broad categories. These were defined using the guidelines provided by the Centre

for Time Use Research in their Multinational Time Use Study guide (CTUR, 2013). However, some time use codes and activities published in the MTUS user guide were not relevant to students and additional activity codes were created to include activities specific to the student panel (e.g. lectures or study time).

Figure 3.4.4 shows how these broad categories of activities were defined, by listing their component activities. The category 'other' was defined as any other activity not included on the activity code list. Some students annotated in the margins of their diaries their activities when they used the 'other' code. This was not a requirement of the study, and this category was not examined beyond this first section of overall time use analysis in this chapter. Examples of activities noted by students were: doing laundry; tidying my room; intimate time with a partner; and, going to the bank.

Figure 3.4.4 Categories of activities

Category	Includes:
Sleep	Sleeping.
Eating and personal care	Eating, cooking or preparing a meal, drinking tea, coffee or juice, shopping for necessities (groceries etc.), looking after someone, walking the dog or looking after a pet & getting ready.
Leisure time	Watching TV or DVDs, chatting with friends, Physical activity (exercise, sport, gym, keep fit and going for a run (including University sports matches), using Facebook, Twitter or other social media, drinking alcohol, video gaming, using the internet (other than for social media), going for a drink, shopping for pleasure, reading for pleasure, going to a party, society or club meeting, dancing, listening to music, going out for a meal, day out (other than for shopping for pleasure), going to see a film, play or concert, downloading music, YouTube etc., hobby and religious worship.
Work	Paid work and voluntary work.
University	Lecture, seminar, laboratory, tutorial or other formal scheduled timetabled session, studying, reading or writing up assignment (outside lectures etc.).
Travel	Travelling to or from University, travelling to something (not to or from University).
Other	Any other activity not covered by the activity code list.

The terms 'week-day' and 'weekend-day' are referred to throughout the present study. To how illustrate how patterns of students' time use might be shaped by the actual day of the week a calculation was performed to show average patterns of time use on a week-day and a weekend-day. A week-day, in terms of students' time use referred to the total mean minutes calculated per panel student for activities they did on a: Monday; Tuesday; Wednesday; Thursday; and, Friday. A

weekend-day referred to the total mean minutes per panel student for activities they did on a Saturday and Sunday. The following formula (applied to each broad category of activities) was used to calculate time use on a week-day:

$$\frac{Total\ mean\ minutes\ per\ panel\ student\ spent\ in\ the\ activity\ (Mon-Fri)}{No\ of\ weekdays\ (5)}$$

The calculation for time use for a weekend-day was similar:

$$\frac{Total\ mean\ minutes\ per\ panel\ student\ spent\ in\ the\ activity\ (Sat\ \&\ Sun)}{No\ of\ days\ in\ weekend\ (2)}$$

These formulae were used to calculate the total mean minutes spent in each activity, and category of activities, in order to present an overall snapshot of time use across the panel. In other words, this showed what an average panel student does on a day. It also can be used to compare the relative popularity of activities. Care, however, needs to be taken in drawing conclusions about individuals when using this statistic. CTUR (2013), advise the use of two further statistics in reporting time use data, the participation mean and participation rate. The participation mean is more useful for describing rarer activities, because it relates to those who did the activity. The participation rate relates to the proportion that did the activity, and is therefore a better basis for concluding about individuals.

In summary, combined application of these three statistics forms the fundamental basis of this time use research:

- average time spent in each activity (or category of activities) over a 24-hour day of the student panel (total mean);

- average time spent in the activity over a 24-hour day by those panel students who undertook the activity on their diary day (participation mean);

- proportion of panel students who undertook the activity on their diary day (participation rate).

3.4.7 Preliminary analysis

A preliminary analysis was conducted on a random selection of the completed diaries, to 'get a feel' for the data and check that dataset management and design worked without problems in both Excel and SPSS. Moreover, this first phase of analysis was an integral part of the process in the design of the focus group schedule (themes for discussion, questions and probes) (Bryman, 2012; Denscombe, 2010). While the critical review of the relevant literature concerned with young peoples' lives (including time use studies) was extensive, use of time use diaries with a first year student sample to examine how their lives developed over time appeared unprecedented. Therefore, assumptions around the nature of youth leisure and university students in particular informed the aims and objectives of the present study, and the research strategy specifically (including the use of focus groups to complement the quantitative data). To get the most from the focus groups, it was judged necessary to design a valid and robust schedule, and that the schedule should be relevant by taking into account themes and patterns that resulted from the preliminary analysis of time use diary data (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, & Robson, 2001; Wilkinson, 1998).

The researcher used the data from all 28 completed PH student diaries that had been collected by this stage of the study, and, randomly selected 30 cases from the 172 completed NPH student diaries that had also been collected. These proportions based on students' term-time residence were comparable with the first year population at the University. The researcher then selected two datasets for preliminary analysis - a week-day (Wednesday) and a weekend-day (Saturday). SPSS was used to generate both primary and secondary activity data for each 30 minute segment for both days, and for each student. This resulted in 48 sheets of output for primary activities and 48 sheets of output for secondary activities for each day. The reason for this part of the process was to get an 'overall snapshot' of what the students were doing over the course of a typical day, and, examine differences in patterns of time use on a week-day, compared to a weekend-day. Moreover, analyses of students' characteristics (such as their sex, age, term-time residence and social class) could be explored, to inform the next phase of the study.

3.5 Focus groups

The time use diaries were designed to collect quantitative data on students' lives as a method of addressing the aims and objectives of the research. However, whilst informing the researcher of patterns of time use in their day-to-day lives, the diary data was limited, in that, it did not address the underlying social processes that may have influenced the students' leisure time, or indeed, any interdependencies that may be an intrinsic feature of students' social networks and specific activities. Therefore, focus groups were used to complement the time use data: (i) to help triangulate the findings and subsequently minimise threats

to validity, and, (2) for completeness of the overall account of students' lives, as set out in the aims and objectives of the research (Bryman, 2012).

Focus groups have been used extensively in both politics, communication studies and in the business sector, with examples of the former including analysis of the effectiveness of public health campaign broadcasts, the latter as a tool in market research. Recent years have seen the focus group increasingly popularised as a data collection method, and, in the present study, focus groups were judged to be the best method through which context and meaning to the quantitative data generated from the time use diary could be added (Bloor et al., 2001; Bryman, 2012; Gray, 2005; Kitzinger, 1995; Punch, 2005). Indeed, it is precisely because the sessions are of a group nature, some of the dynamics and underlying social processes that shape students' leisure, and their daily lives more generally, might be more accessible. As Wilkinson noted:

> Focus groups are a particularly good choice of method when the purpose of the research is to elicit people's understandings, opinions and views, or to explore how these are advanced, elaborated and negotiated in a social context (Wilkinson, 1998, p. 187).

3.5.1 Focus group recruitment and organization

The focus group schedule was designed as a standardized structure for the facilitator to follow, ensuring that all the themes which were of interest to the study were discussed by the group. The schedule design was informed by both designs in previous studies, and notes from the preliminary analysis of the students' time use diary data. The schedule was also used throughout each focus

group to aid the facilitator when the discussion went 'off track', and to probe students to further elaborate on significant themes and points they made during the sessions. A copy of the schedule is shown in Appendix 8.

A further consideration in organising the focus groups was the sampling strategy: (i) deciding who should be invited to participate; (ii) how many should attend; and, (iii) how many focus groups are required to achieve a satisfactory outcome. A sub-sample from the panel was recruited, based on striking a balance between student's availability and addressing the research aims and objectives. The aim was to generate a sample that included: both male and female students; both PH and NPH students; students from working-class and middle-class backgrounds and a diverse range of degree courses. In terms of the number of students for each focus group, the present study was informed by previous findings from the plethora of well-documented studies. Between six and eight individuals was deemed the optimum number of students for the following reasons: (i) larger groups can be difficult to manage, specifically ensuring all present get an equal share of the discussion; (ii) larger groups might also take on a 'seminar feel', especially with university students, possibly resulting in a more formal or didactic experience; and, (iii) smaller groups might be limited in discussion (Bloor et al., 2001; Bryman, 2012; Kitzinger, 1995; Wilkinson, 1998).

Those students who had completed the time use diary were contacted (by text or email) to ask if they were available to attend a focus group session. The idea was to run all the focus groups during a single week, at convenient times for students contending with busy lives, and being careful not to coincide with first year examinations and revision timetabling. They were informed that focus groups were

an aspect of the study during the original 'pod briefings' prior to signing their consent forms.

PH students were once again, under-represented in the focus group recruitment process. However, 6 focus groups were organized, to be conducted over the course on a single week, and incorporating students from the panel with the required characteristics. Indeed, it was the response from students that was the predominant factor in deciding how many focus groups would be facilitated. According to Kitzinger (1995), this is a common constraint in facilitating focus groups in social research. Subsequently, one of the focus groups was cancelled due to participants calling in advance to withdraw from that particular session. Focus group 6 had been scheduled for late on a Friday afternoon, and was subsequently re-scheduled for the following week.

After completing their second time use diary in 2013, students from the panel were again invited to participate in a focus group in order to gather qualitative data at this second point in time. The same procedure was used to recruit students to the focus groups as in 2012, and all those who completed a second time use diary were invited. The resulting sub-sample of 39 students was comprised of those students who consented to take part in a second focus group. Of these 39 students, there were eight students who had participated in focus groups in 2012, and 31 students for whom this was their first focus group.

3.5.2 Focus group administration

Each focus group lasted for between 70 and 90 minutes and they were facilitated in May 2012, and again in March 2013, at the University in a seminar room. They were audio-recorded on a digital recorder (Marantz professional solid-state recorder PMD660) for subsequent transcription. Each session comprised participants, a scribe (the researcher) and a facilitator. It was intended that the researcher and the facilitator would swap roles at different sessions. However, because of the diversity of the group, the researcher was best positioned to remain as the scribe. The fact that the researcher had prior knowledge of each participant, including their names, term-time residential statuses, degree courses and age, ensured that as students talked, the researcher made notes in the role of scribe, and, this was found to be important for identifying students, and reducing error in subsequent data transcription and analysis. Notwithstanding these points, the researcher took an interactive role in *probing* students during each focus group session, although it was the facilitator who led the session. The facilitator was informed by the researcher in a meeting prior to each focus group. The focus group schedule is shown in Appendix 8.

One of the concerns prior to commencement of the focus groups was that the students might potentially feel embarrassed or shy, and this would in turn inhibit group interaction and/or discussion. This assumption was informed by: (i) findings reported in previous studies investigating young people, and specifically where the focus groups were administered by 'older adults' (Rabiee, 2004; Smith, 2006); and, (ii) because students would be unknown to each other, this too, might inhibit group discussion. According to (Bryman, 2012), focus groups are often facilitated using 'pre-existing groups' comprised of people who know each other, specifically

when the researcher aims to keep the discussion as 'natural' as possible and group interaction is key to the aim of the research (Bloor et al., 2001; Kitzinger, 1995). In the main, the focus groups were lively, informative and although some students were less forthcoming with discussion than others, the facilitator intervened throughout to ensure that all the topics in the schedule were addressed by the group. Indeed, it was the PH students who tended to have less to say, although it is difficult to know the reasons for their relative reticence.

Before each focus group commenced, the researcher arranged the room and tested the digital recorder. The students were contacted on the day of each focus group (by text or phone call) to confirm their attendance. Refreshments such as fruit juice, water and biscuits were laid out in the room and the table was arranged so that the participants were seated opposite each other, with the facilitator and scribe at opposite ends of the table. Upon arrival, students were given a name badge (first name only), and once all of them had arrived, the facilitator introduced her/himself. A consent form was signed by students, to indicate they were aware of both the nature of the focus group and that their discussions were being recorded. This was followed by the participants all introducing themselves, followed by some 'warm-up' questions about how they had found completing the time use diary. The 'warm-up' questions were 'open-ended' and designed to generate responses from the participants thus putting them at ease and encouraging further discussion as well as attempting to generate some rapport with the researcher and facilitator (Bloor et al., 2001; Bryman, 2012; Kitzinger, 1995; Rabiee, 2004).

3.5.3 Analysis of transcripts

Focus groups tend to generate large volumes of data, and there are many approaches used by social researchers to analyze this data. The present study was informed by several guiding principles, specifically thematic analysis (Bryman, 2012; Roulston, 2010). Qualitative analysis "calls on the researcher to discover the key components or general principles underlying a particular phenomenon so that these can be used to provide a clearer understanding of that thing" (Denscombe, 2010, p. 114). To achieve clarity in understanding these underlying principles, the researcher considered two broad aspects of analysis: (i) data handling – the process of organizing and retrieval, and, (ii) and data interpretation – the process of coding (or indexing), and developing theories to explain the data (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Gibbs, 2007).

At the outset of the data handling process, each original audio file from each focus group was uploaded to the researcher's computer. The audio files were listened to in full, and subsequently transcribed verbatim into a document. The transcription of focus group data is a process which is an inherently lengthy one, and required some additional support from the same research assistant who helped with the time use diary data entry. The research assistant was already familiar with the aims and objectives of the study, and had previous experience of transcribing audio files in previous studies. She was also given a copy of the focus group schedule prior to the transcription process, to familiarize herself with the topics of discussion. Both the researcher and the research assistant worked closely together throughout the transcription process so any ambiguities or uncertainties with what was said during the focus groups could be addressed.

It was during this stage that the identities of students were codified so they could remain identifiable only by their characteristics (e.g. sex, age, term-time residence and social class). The transcripts were then read through by the researcher as a first stage of familiarization with the data in their entirety. Transcripts were also annotated during this process to identify potential themes by which the data might be coded (Bryman, 2012; Denscombe, 2010; Roulston, 2010). Indeed, this initial stage of identifying possible codes for themes is noted by Denscombe (2010: 279), as a basis for '"reading between the lines" to see what lies beneath the surface'. The decision was taken to use the qualitative data analysis software NVivo (version 10) to manage the large amount of data from the transcripts efficiently, and organize the data into analytic codes (and subsequent themes), as these emerged from reading and interpreting the data (Bryman, 2012). This step of open coding (Bryman, 2012; Denscombe, 2010) resulted in a number of *in vivo* codes which were taken directly from the students' own words, such as 'just chilling really' and 'being a first year'. Open coding was conducted line-by-line on the transcripts with NVivo (version 10) and the *in vivo* codes were comprised of 'chunks of data' that were further refined in a process of focused coding (Charmaz, 2006; Denscombe, 2010).

Subsequent refinement and the process of further developing the analytic codes, utilized a constant comparative method, which is central to a grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This involved a recursive system of revisiting data that had been coded, to compare these provisional analytic codes with new emerging codes in later transcripts. Hence, some original codes were 'adjusted, collapsed, and revised' (Roulston, 2010: 153) throughout

the analysis process, into categories of data. This process of comparison aids the researcher to refine these categories, and concepts, and enables the development of theoretical explanation of the data (Bryman, 2012). Moreover, this process is designed to prevent the researcher from losing sight of the data (Denscombe, 2010, p.116). The resulting codes were the final themes used in reporting the qualitative findings from the focus groups in chapters 9 and 10.

3.6 Research ethics

All social research evokes ethical considerations if it involves data collection from or about human participants (Oliver, 2003; Punch, 1998). These considerations are intertwined with the integrity of the research, and govern how research participants should be treated and the actions of the researcher (Bryman, 2012). Codes of ethical practice governing research, such as the Nuremberg Code (Shuster, 1997) and the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association [WMA], 2013), have been developed mainly in response to Nazi atrocities during World War II, and the recognition that medical research was conducted on people without their consent (Manning, 2004). There are currently many ethical codes and guidelines published by organizations whose members carry out research, such as British Psychological Society and the British Sociological Association (Bryman, 2012; Henn, Weinstein & Foard, 2006; Robson, 2011), and it is essential that careful thought is given to ethical considerations, from the proposal stage of any study, continuing throughout the research process (Robson, 2011).

Time point one of the study involved recruiting first year students from the University's 2011/12 intake, and ethical approval was sought from the Faculty of

Applied Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Chester, which was granted on 05/01/12 is shown in Appendix 10. The process of ethical approval outlined by the Faculty of Applied and Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Chester, required continued thought around any ethical issues that might arise at the time of application, and for the duration of the study. Thus, ethical approval was not deemed a one-off event (Bryman, 2012), and the study was bound by the University of Chester's research governance framework (University of Chester, 2011). Time point two of the study involved contacting the same participants, while continuing to adhere to the ethical principles outlined in University's research governance framework.

Ethical principles in social research can be summarized into four main areas (Bryman, 2012). These are: whether there is informed consent; whether there is harm to participants; whether there is an invasion of privacy; and whether deception is involved. These areas tend to overlap, but each will be examined in turn in relation to the study.

Fully informed voluntary consent necessitates that potential participants are given all the information about the exact nature of the study, the research process, and any benefits or risks from their participation (Bryman, 2012). This is to safeguard the right of the potential participant to participate, and reduces any legal liability of the researcher (Bowling, 2009). Moreover, there remains an obligation for the researcher to protect participants from harm (Henn et al., 2006). The study was explained to potential participants, both verbally and in a documented format via

a thorough briefing of what participation involved and then supplementing this with a participant information sheet (PIS). They were then asked to read the PIS and sign a consent form that outlined all the elements of the study, and exactly what they had consented to. It was made clear to the students they could withdraw from the study at any stage. Furthermore, the researcher has an obligation to ensure any potential participant fully understands what their participation entails (Bryman, 2012; Boynton, 2005). Informed consent can sometimes a contentious issue, specifically in the case of covert research (Bryman, 2012): clearly, conducting research with people who are not aware of the research is in direct conflict with the principle of informed consent (Bryman, 2012; Robson, 2011). There was no covert element within this study.

There is evidence to show participants are not always aware of their right to refuse participation, particularly in longitudinal studies, where that right remains for the duration of the research (Robson, 2011). Therefore, careful consideration was given to the process of re-contacting participants at time point two. They were contacted through their preferred contact details (usually via text or email), and their right to withdraw from the study was reiterated during this process, as was obtaining their consent a second time.

Care was also taken to ensure that no harm came to participants. Harm in the context of social research can be defined in the form of physical, psychological, legal and professional (Henn et al., 2006), and each was considered. Because of the longitudinal element of the study, care was taken not to coerce participants to

participate at either time point. Indeed, it was deemed that two attempts to re-contact participants at time point two was appropriate. Additional means of avoiding harm to participants is to ensure both confidentiality and anonymity – this is the norm in the process of disseminating findings, but also an imperative throughout the research process (Bryman, 2012; Robson, 2011). Once collected, data were anonymized and participants were given a unique identifier, thus individuals could not be recognized. The electronic database was stored on a password-protected computer in a locked office, and any hard copies of data were stored in a locked filing cabinet.

During the data collection process at time point one, names and contact details of each participant were entered into an electronic database and they were given a participant identifier, that was used throughout the duration of the study on each of the documents they completed (such as consent forms, time use diaries, focus group schedules and the resulting transcripts. In effect, each participant had their own complete record of their participation throughout the study, stored in the locked filing cabinet. Participants were asked for their permission to use their anonymized quotations from their focus group transcripts in the reporting of the findings. Original audio files were kept on a password-protected computer at the University of Chester, along with interview transcripts, which were held in a locked filing cabinet. It was explained to participants that the only situation in which the researcher would have to break confidentiality, would be if anything revealed itself as a potential risk or harm to either themselves, or a fellow student, in which case the supervisory team would be informed. This situation did not arise. Invasion of privacy is related to the notion of informed consent. In essence, if a participant

has consented to participate in a research study, to some extent, they will have agreed to some invasion of privacy (Bryman, 2012). However, this does not mean participants have given up all rights to privacy (Bryman, 2012; Robson, 2011) and they may, for example, refuse to answer questions about particular areas of their lives if they deem them to be too invasive (Henn et al., 2006). To this extent, questions regarding their sex lives and experiences with illegal drugs were not included in any aspect of data collection because it was thought this may deter some students from participating in the study.

3.7 Researcher positionality

As the researcher in the present study, I have reflected on how my social position relating to sex, age, social class, ethnicity and the way in which I have experienced life have influenced my position as a researcher. These reflections have been grounded in terms of what Elias (1987) calls involvement and detachment. This was important because the reality of conducting any social research, particularly qualitative research, is that the research can be influenced by the aforementioned social position and the predilections of the researcher (Burke, Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Denscombe, 2010). An appropriate blend of involvement and detachment must inform all stages of the research process if it is to have credibility and lead to the generation of valid data, from which adequate explanations can be developed (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, my emotional involvement as a consequence of my life history was brought to the fore at all stages of the research process in order to generate insight. However, there was also the need to exercise degrees of control over my emotional involvement through a process of detachment in order to avoid personal biases influencing the process.

Operationalizing involvement and detachment in this way has been argued for by several researchers (see for example, Perry, Thurston & Green, 2004) as the basis for producing robust research.

My biography was particularly relevant to this study, and indeed contributed to shaping my interest and orientation to the research questions. For example, I reflected on my own experience completing both my undergraduate and postgraduate degrees as a mature university student. My role as residential tutor – providing assistance and advice to first year students living in the University's accommodation – was also of relevance in informing my focus and interests.

The balance of my involvement-detachment was managed throughout the research process in a number of specific ways. For example, I reflected on how my role as residential tutor, whilst informing me to some extent about how some students manage their time, could also shape my beliefs and/or introduce bias (that is to say, emotional involvement that might make me less appreciative of alternative lines of thinking about issues) to the process. I also recognised that I needed to try to separate my role as residential tutor (which I was employed as on a part-time basis during the early stages of the research) from that of researcher, especially where panel members were residential students in my jurisdiction. Blending involvement and detachment also helped me be sensitized to how some panel members might adjust their day-to-day actions with the knowledge they were being studied (Denscombe, 2009). Finally, I acknowledge all the aforementioned points and sought to minimize their potential for any 'reactive effect' in the process of generating valid data (Bryman, 2012: 715).

I am myself a product of both primary and secondary socialization processes (key processes that were studied in this research) that could be characterized in terms of social position as from a male, white, British and working class background. It is these characteristics that I reflected on as I sought to operationalize my involvement and detachment, as they constitute part of the lens through which I undertook my research (Burke, Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Denscombe, 2010; Holt-Reynolds, 1992).

Chapter 4

Students' time use in 2012

4.1 Introduction

This chapter identifies the main features and patterns of time use among first year university students in 2012. In the first instance, an outline is provided of the characteristics of the student panel, in relation to sex, age, term-time residence, ethnicity, disability, educational background etc. This is followed by a presentation of the results from students' completed time use diaries, which indicate how those students spent their time. Time use was examined in relation to week-days and weekend-days. Patterns of time use were also explored in relation to different sub-groups of students: that is to say, in relation to their sex; age; term-time residence. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary in order to highlight the key findings.

4.2 Characteristics of the panel in 2012

Table 4.2.1 shows key characteristics of the panel in 2012. Just over two thirds of the panel (67.5 per cent) were female. This is similar to proportions of males and females within the student population at the university where the research was carried out. Accordingly, HESA (2011) reported approximately 65 per cent of the UK student population were female in 2012-13. The students' age ranged from 18 years to 47 years, (Mdn=19).

Table 4.2.1 Characteristics of the panel in 2012

		N	%			N	%
Sex				**Religious denomination**			
	Males	65	32.5		**None**	105	52.5
	Females	135	67.5		**CoE**	69	34.5
	Total	200	100.0		**Catholic**	18	9.0
					Other	8	4.0
Age					**Total**	200	100.0
	18	67	33.5				
	19	81	40.5	**Disability/Long-term illness**			
	20 and over	52	26.0	**special educational needs**			
	Total	200	100.0		**Yes**	13	6.5
					No	187	93.5
Term-time residence					**Total**	200	100.0
	Parental Home	28	14.0				
	Non-Parental Home	172	86.0	**Highest attained qualification**			
	Total	200	100.0		**A-Level**	153	76.5
					Access to HE	15	7.5
Family HE history					**B-TEC**	15	7.5
	First Generation	123	61.5		**Other**	17	8.5
	Second generation	77	38.5		**Total**	200	100.0
	Total	200	100.0				
				Secondary school			
Ethnicity					**Selective State**	22	11.0
	White British	181	90.5		**Comprehensive**	164	82.0
	White other	8	4.0		**Private/public**	11	5.1
	Other	11	5.5		**Other**	3	1.5
	Total	200	100.0		**Total**	200	100.0

Due to the relatively small sample size and considerable range in ages, students were divided into three age-based sub-groups. These sub-groups comprised students, who were 18 years old, 19 years old and 20 years or older. In terms of age, 74 per cent of the panel were below 20 years of age.

The majority of first year university students in the UK live in university accommodation during their first year, a pattern reflected in the sample where 86 per cent (172 students) were in university managed accommodation. These students were termed non-parental home (NPH) students. There were considerably fewer students living in the parental home (PH) during term-time in the panel. This does reflect the smaller proportion if students attending the University. However, it may also reflect a greater difficulty in engaging them in the research, which in turn, may reflect a greater degree of detachment from university life.

Students were asked to record whether or not their parents or guardians had a university qualification. Some 61.5 per cent (123 students) were first generation students. In terms of their own educational background prior to starting at university, 82.0 per cent (164 students) stated they had previously attended a comprehensive school, with the remainder attending either selective state schools, private schools or 'others' such as faith-based schools. Students were also asked to state their highest academic qualification prior to starting university. Some 76.5 per cent (153 students) had attained A-Level qualifications prior to university, the remaining students having attained a variety of other A-level equivalent qualifications such as Access to Higher Education Certificates.

According to the University's registry department, the student population (89.8 per cent) was predominantly 'White' or 'White British' in 2011/2012. This was reflected in the sample with 94.5 per cent (181 students) reporting their ethnicity as 'White' or 'White British'. In terms of religious background, some 52.5 per cent (105 students) described themselves as following no religion. Of those who reported a religious background, 34.5 per cent (69 students) reported a Church of England (Protestant) religious background (Table 4.2.1).

Table 4.2.2 shows the faculties from which the sample was recruited.

Table 4.2.2 Students by faculty: university intake and panel

		*2011/12 intake		2012 (n=200)	
Faculty		**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Social science		509	15.3	60	30.0
Applied sciences		428	12.9	55	27.5
Business, enterprise and lifelong learning		397	11.9	32	16.0
Humanities		553	16.6	21	10.5
Health and social care		575	17.3	17	8.5
Arts and media		494	14.9	9	4.5
Science and engineering		169	5.1	4	2.0
Education and children's services		201	6.0	2	1.0
***Source - University Registry**	Total	3326	100.0	200	100.0

Table 4.2.2 compares the university student population and panel sample by faculty. This shows that the panel composition was, to the same degree skewed in favour of social and applied sciences students, with smaller proportions from those in professional training (such as nursing and teaching), and in the arts and humanities.

Overall, the panel in 2012 was broadly reflective of the first year University intake in relation to key demographics such as sex, age and ethnicity. It is more difficult to comment on other socio-demographic characteristics such as being a first or

second generation student, religious denomination or disability because of a lack of comparative information. Additional information on course programme indicates diversity in the panel. Although it cannot be concluded that the sample is representative of first year students at the University it is, in broad terms, reflective of the kind of students enrolling at the University in that year in relation to key demographics.

4.3 Time spent on main categories in 2012: week-days and weekend-days

Table 4.3.1 shows how much time was spent in each of the 7 broad categories of activities on both a week-day and a weekend-day. The participation rate for each category is also shown. Time is reported in the tables in minutes and throughout the commentary in hours and minutes to aid understanding.

Sleeping was the main activity of students which accounted for the most time on both a week-day and a weekend-day. Indeed, time spent sleeping accounted for more than a third of the day: some 36.7 per cent (8 hours and 49 minutes) on a week-day, and 40.4 per cent (9 hours and 41 minutes) on a weekend-day.

Leisure was also a main activity and accounted for some 28.8 per cent (6 hours and 29 minutes) of a week-day, which increased to 33.2 per cent (7 hours and 23 minutes) on a weekend-day. This was followed by university work, which accounted for 16.9 per cent (4 hours and 3 minutes) of a week-day and more than halving to 7.3 per cent on a weekend-day (1 hour and 44 minutes). Moreover, over a third of students did no university work on a weekend-day (participation rate 63.5 per cent). Eating and personal care accounted for 11.0 per cent (2 hours and 39 minutes) of a week-day, with a small decrease to 10.4 per cent (2 hours and 31 minutes) of a

weekend-day. The three main activities carried out by students on a weekend-day were sleeping, leisure and eating and personal care, which accounted for more than three quarters (76.5 per cent; 18 hours and 21 minutes) of the day.

Table 4.3.1 Total mean and participation rate for each category of activities in 2012: week-day and weekend-day

Category of activities	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	Total mean (minutes)	Participation rate (%)
Sleeping	**WD**	528.5	100.0
	WE	581.0	100.0
Leisure	**WD**	408.8	100.0
	WE	472.8	100.0
University	**WD**	243.4	100.0
	WE	104.4	63.5
Eating and personal care	**WD**	163.7	100.0
	WE	155.8	100.0
Travel	**WD**	65.4	87.0
	WE	62.2	70.5
Work	**WD**	30.2	39.0
	WE	63.9	24.5
Other	**WD**	25.4	66.5
	WE	34.8	45.5

Paid/voluntary work was a relative minority activity among the panel of students accounting for 2 per cent (30 minutes, participation rate 39 per cent of a week-day). On a weekend-day the participation rate decreased to 24.5 per cent, alongside an increase in the total mean time to 63.9 minutes. Thus a smaller proportion of the

panel tended to spend more time on this activity. At the weekend, time not spent on university work was taken up by sleeping and leisure.

Figure 4.3.1 and Figure 4.3.2 show how the seven categories of activities were distributed throughout a week-day and a weekend-day retrospectively. The finite nature of time means that more time spent in one category of activities will inevitably impact on other categories. Moreover, there is likely to be a temporal dimension in how some activities compete for time with other activities.

Figure 4.3.1 illustrates how time use was distributed on a week-day. The most clear-cut distinction was how sleeping restricted the time available for the six other categories of activities. Notwithstanding this comment, time for leisure was distributed throughout the day, alongside work and other activities.

Figure 4.3.1 Distribution of categories of activities on week-days in 2012

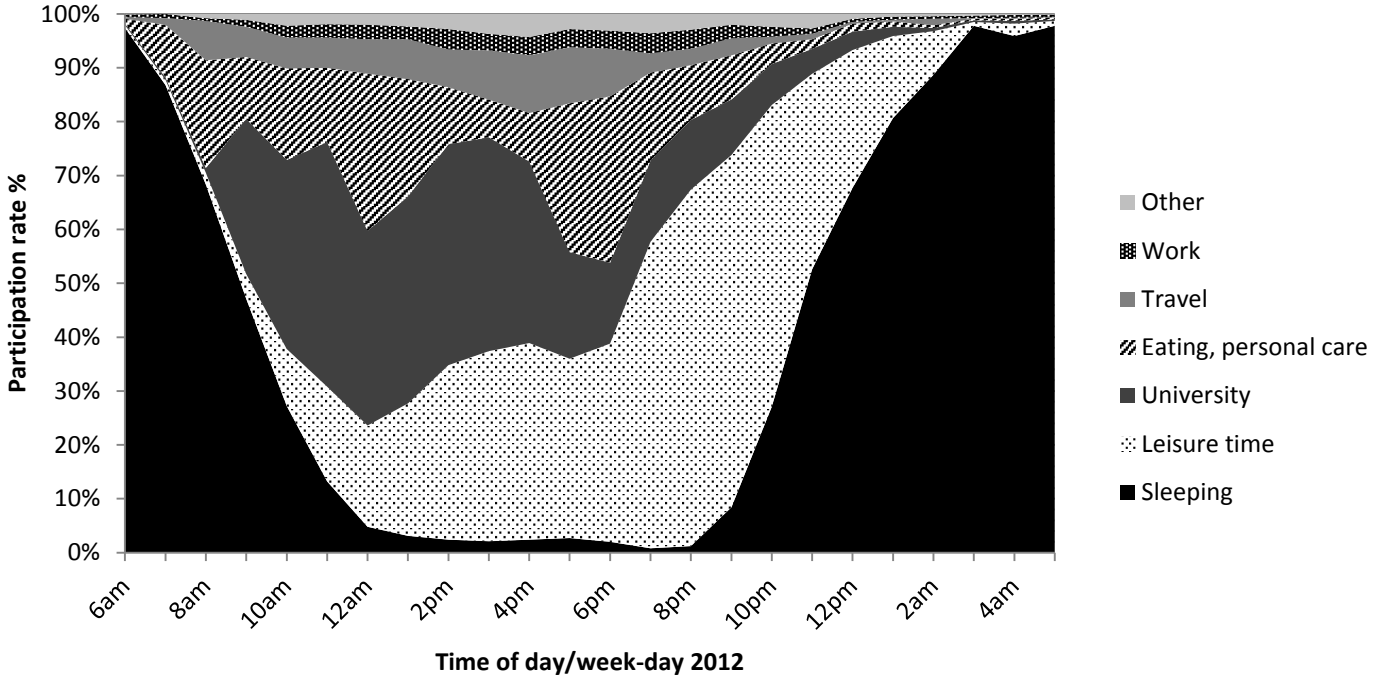
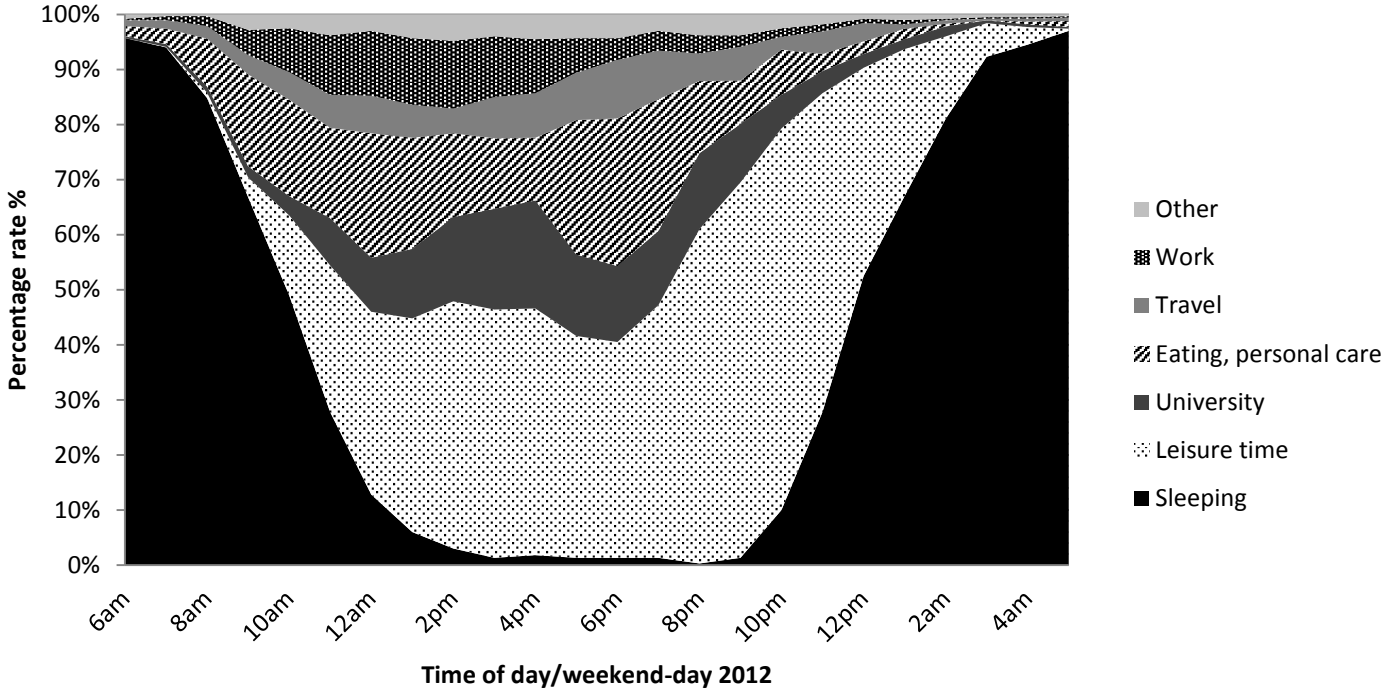


Figure 4.3.2 Distribution of categories of activities on weekend-days in 2012



The temporal distribution of activities during a weekend-day was relatively similar to that of a week-day. This suggests that students have flexibility during a week-day to use time for leisure from 8:00am onwards, and not just predominantly in the evenings as working (full time adults) would tend to do. In other words, the use of time on a week-day and weekend-day was not dissimilar. The main change in the distribution of time use related to the encroachment of sleeping to the late morning and early evening. This squeezed the available time for other activities into a shorter timeframe. The second main change related to the expansion of leisure (Figure 4.3.2).

4.4 Time spent on main categories in 2012: sub-group analysis

Findings from previous studies of students show they are far from a homogenous population. Social demographics such as sex, age, term-time residence and family history of higher education tend to shape time use. The following sections report the findings from a more fine grained analysis in relation to activities within each domain as well as in relation to sub-groups, revealing therefore, which groups of people are more likely to engage in different activities (in relation to sex, age, term-time residence and family history of HE). Tables 4.4.1, 4.4.2, 4.4.3 and 4.4.4 show how time was spent by these sub-groups. Each table shows the participation mean (average minutes for those who did the activity), and standard deviation. Of note were the relatively large standard deviations. Moreover, participation means are reported to illustrate a more meaningful understanding of patterns of time use for those students who undertook specific activities.

Time use data are shown for a week-day and weekend-day, and any important patterns are highlighted in the commentary following each table. Moreover, the key statistics are highlighted in each table to aid clarity. Activities that collectively formed the 'other' category were not reported in the sub-group analysis.

Table 4.4.1 reveals how males and females spent time in the categories of activities on week-days and weekend-days. Females tended to spend more time on average sleeping than males, although the difference decreased on weekend-days. There was an increase of over 50 minutes in time spent sleeping on a weekend-day compared with a week-day, a consistent finding for males and females. Furthermore, the larger standard deviations on weekend-days were indicative of increased variability for males and females in the time they spent sleeping on weekend-days compared to week-days.

On average males spent over 1 hour and 10 minutes more than females on leisure time on week-days. However, this difference between males and females diminished on weekend-days to 54 minutes. Although both males and females spent more time on leisure on weekend-days compared with week-days, the difference between weekend-days and week-days was greatest for females some 1 hour and 9 minutes. This indicates that the time not spent on university work (see below) was taken up by extra sleep and leisure time, for males and females. Both males and females showed considerable variability in the time they spent doing leisure, particularly on weekend-days (Table 4.4.1).

Table 4.4.1 Time use on week-days and weekend-days by category of activity in 2012: males and females

Activity	Weekday or Weekend (WD/WE)	Males		Females		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)*
Sleep	**WD**	65 (100.0%)	521.2 (73.8)	135 (100.0%)	532.1 (68.2)	200 (100.0%)	528.5 (70.0)
	WE	65 (100.0%)	575.3 (100.0)	135 (100.0%)	583.7 (99.3)	200 (100.0%)	581.0 (99.4)
Leisure time	**WD**	65 (100.0%)	440.2 (112.7)	135 (100.0%)	363.8 (115.4)	200 (100.0%)	388.6 (119.7)
	WE	65 (100.0%)	487.2 (175.5)	135 (100.0%)	422.2 (163.0)	200 (100.0%)	443.3 (169.5)
University	**WD**	64 (98.5%)	228.5 (89.0)	134 (99.3%)	250.5 (104.0)	198 (99.0%)	245.8 (97.1)
	WE	42 (64.6%)	169.3 (117.2)	85 (63.0%)	162.0 (117.1)	127 (63.5%)	164.4 (116.7)
Eating & personal care	**WD**	65 (100.0%)	150.5 (60.8)	135 (100.0%)	170.1 (51.9)	200 (100.0%)	163.7 (55.6)
	WE	65 (100.0%)	131.5 (67.7)	135 (100.0%)	167.4 (75.9)	200 (100.0%)	156.6 (74.4)
Travel	**WD**	53 (81.5%)	62.7 (42.1)	121 (89.6%)	80.6 (53.8)	174 (87.0%)	75.2 (51.1)
	WE	43 (66.2%)	87.6 (58.7)	98 (72.6%)	88.5 (63.7)	141 (70.5%)	88.2 (62.0)
Work	**WD**	23 (35.4%)	92.1 (135.7)	55 (40.7%)	77.4 (92.3)	78 (39.0%)	77.4 (92.3)
	WE	12 (18.5%)	305.0 (189.2)	37 (27.4%)	246.5 (126.6)	49 (24.5%)	260.8 (144.5)

***The participation mean is the same as the total mean when the participation rate is 100%**

All males and females spent time on their university work on week-days. However, on weekend-days, participation rates for males and females diminished to 64.6 per cent and 63.0 per cent respectively. Female students spent more time on average on their studies on week-days compared with males by 22 minutes, although this difference diminished on weekend-days to 7 minutes. When left to their own devices on the weekend, students tended to use time for other activities – sleep and leisure for example.

Female students spent almost 20 minutes more than male students on eating and personal care on week-days and 36 minutes more on weekend-days. Males and females tended to spend a little less time on eating and personal care on weekend-days compared with week-days, although it was males who recorded the biggest decline in this aspect of time use on weekend-days. Variability was greater on weekend-days compared with week-days, a consistent feature for males and females.

In terms of travel, fewer students spent time travelling on weekend-days compared with week-days, regardless of sex, and this was reflected in students' participation rates. However, actual time spent travelling for those who did travel, on weekend-days increased by nearly 25 minutes for males and 8 minutes for females. Overall, females spent more time on travel than males, specifically on week-days, and were more variable in the time they spent travelling than males on week-days and weekend-days.

A larger proportion of female students spent time at work compared to male students, and this was reflected in the participation rates for week-days and weekend-days. Thus males and females were more likely to work during the week, alongside university work than at the weekend. However, for those who did work on weekend-days, time spent working increased to 3 hours and 33 minutes for males and 3 hours and 4 minutes for females. Males tended to spend more time at work than females by 15 minutes on week-days. This difference increased to 45 minutes on weekend-days (Table 4.4.1).

Table 4.4.2 shows how all three age groups spent time in the categories of activities on week-days and weekend-days.

Table 4.4.2 Time use on week-days and weekend-days by category of activity in 2012: age groups

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	18 years		19 years		20 years and over		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Sleep	**WD**	67 (100.0%)	542.2 (61.9)	81 (100.0%)	521.9 (77.6)	52 (100.0%)	521.8 (65.9)	200 (100.0%)	528.5 (70.0)
	WE	67 (100.0%)	583.8 (100.0)	81 (100.0%)	588.8 (105.7)	52 (100.0%)	564.8 (87.4)	200 (100.0%)	581.0 (99.4)
Leisure time	**WD**	67 (100.0%)	412.5 (96.4)	81 (100.0%)	406.0 (118.1)	52 (100.0%)	331.0 (131.8)	200 (100.0%)	388.6 (119.7)
	WE	67 (100.0%)	466.6 (163.0)	81 (100.0%)	442.9 (171.6)	52 (100.0%)	414.5 (173.0)	200 (100.0%)	443.3 (169.5)
University	**WD**	66 (98.5%)	227.9 (76.3)	80 (98.8%)	245.6 (103.9)	52 (100.0%)	269.0 (106.4)	198 (99.0%)	245.8 (97.1)
	WE	42 (63.0%)	142.5 (84.0)	54 (67.0%)	175.6 (139.6)	31 (59.6%)	174.7 (110.4)	127 (63.5%)	164.4 (116.7)
Eating & personal care	**WD**	67 (100.0%)	161.1 (50.9)	81 (100.0%)	162.8 (59.9)	52 (100.0%)	168.5 (55.1)	200 (100.0%)	163.7 (55.6)
	WE	67 (100.0%)	146.4 (67.0)	81 (100.0%)	156.8 (81.1)	52 (100.0%)	166.2 (74.8)	200 (100.0%)	156.6 (74.4)
Travel	**WD**	57 (85.1%)	67.2 (38.0)	71 (88.0%)	80.6 (56.8)	46 (88.5%)	76.7 (56.3)	174 (87.0%)	75.2 (51.1)
	WE	53 (79.1%)	92.5 (71.0)	54 (66.7%)	86.1 (61.9)	34 (65.4%)	84.7 (46.5)	141 (70.5%)	88.2 (62.0)
Work	**WD**	17 (25.4%)	57.5 (61.9)	32 (39.5%)	48.4 (49.6)	29 (55.8%)	121.0 (123.8)	78 (39.0%)	77.4 (92.3)
	WE	12 (17.9%)	195.0 (94.0)	18 (22.2%)	248.3 (125.5)	19 (36.5%)	314.2 (144.5)	49 (24.5%)	260.8 (144.5)

***The participation mean is the same as the total mean when the participation rate is 100%**

Table 4.4.2 shows that there was less difference between the three age groups in terms of their sleeping patterns, on week-days compared with weekend-days. That is to say, there was less variability on week-days. All three age groups tended to spend more time sleeping on weekend-days compared with week-days, and this was most pronounced in the 19 year olds who slept an additional 1 hour 7 minutes on average, on weekend-days. However, older students tended to spend less time sleeping than younger students; there was also less variability in the time they slept on weekend-days compared with younger students.

Analysis also showed as age increased, the time spent on leisure decreased by 1 hour and 31 minutes on week-days, and 1 hour and 15 minutes on weekend-days. All three age groups spent more time on leisure on weekend-days compared with week-days. Time spent doing university work increased as age increased by 41 minutes. All three age groups spent less time on university work on weekend-days, and this decline was most pronounced in the oldest group, some 1 hour and 94 minutes.

There was also an age-related pattern for eating and personal care. Indeed, as age increased the amount of time increased by 7 minutes on week-days and 20 minutes on weekend-days. All three age groups spent less time on eating and personal care on weekend-days compared to week-days. Participation rates for travel were similar for all three age groups, between 85.1 to 88.5 per cent on week-days, with a gradual increase in participation as age increased. There was less time spent travelling on weekend-days for all three age groups. Moreover, there was a gradual decrease in participation as age increased on weekend-days.

In terms of patterns in the data for work, participation rates increased as age increased on week-days. Additionally, despite the decline in the weekend-day participation rate for work by all three age groups, the participation rate increased as age increased. In terms of time spent working, those who worked on weekend-days spent more time at work compared with those who worked on week-days (Table 4.4.2).

Table 4.4.3 shows differences in patterns of time use for students based on their term-time residential status (PH and NPH) on week-days and weekend-days. NPH students tended to spend more time sleeping than PH students by 12 minutes on week-days, and this increased to 33 minutes on weekend-days. Moreover, both residential groups spent more time sleeping on weekend-days compared to week-days. However, the increase was more prominent in the NPH group by some 56 minutes.

Table 4.4.3 Time use on week-days and weekend-days by category of activity in 2012: term-time residence

Activity	Weekday or Weekend (WD/WE)	Parental home (PH)		Non-parental home (NPH)		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)*
Sleep	**WD**	28 (100.0%)	518.6 (60.9)	172 (100.0%)	530.2 (71.5)	200 (100.0%)	528.5 (70.0)
	WE	28 (100.0%)	552.9 (80.9)	172 (100.0%)	585.5 (101.5)	200 (100.0%)	581.0 (99.4)
Leisure time	**WD**	28 (100.0%)	367.1 (139.4)	172 (100.0%)	392.1 (116.3)	200 (100.0%)	388.6 (119.7)
	WE	28 (100.0%)	386.8 (176.4)	172 (100.0%)	452.5 (167.1)	200 (100.0%)	443.3 (169.5)
University	**WD**	28 (100.0%)	210.9 (102.8)	172 (100.0%)	248.7 (98.5)	198 (99.0%)	245.8 (97.1)
	WE	14 (50.0%)	93.2 (66.4)	113 (65.7%)	173.2 (118.8)	127 (63.5%)	164.4 (116.7)
Eating & personal care	**WD**	28 (100.0%)	163.9 (61.3)	172 (100.0%)	163.7 (54.8)	200 (100.0%)	163.7 (55.6)
	WE	28 (100.0%)	153.2 (71.2)	172 (100.0%)	156.2 (75.9)	200 (100.0%)	156.6 (74.4)
Travel	**WD**	27 (96.4%)	117.8 (55.0)	147 (85.5%)	67.3 (46.4)	174 (87.0%)	75.2 (51.1)
	WE	26 (92.9%)	98.7 (60.3)	115 (66.9%)	85.8 (62.4)	141 (70.5%)	88.2 (62.0)
Work	**WD**	15 (53.6%)	101.2* (79.7)	63 (36.6%)	71.7 (94.7)	78 (39.0%)	77.4 (92.3)
	WE	18 (64.3%)	267.5 (142.1)	31 (18.0%)	256.9 (148.0)	49 (24.5%)	260.8 (144.5)

***The participation mean is the same as the total mean when the participation rate is 100%**

In terms of leisure activities, NPH students spent more time than PH students on week-days by 35 minutes, and this increased to 57 minutes on weekend-days. Moreover, both PH and NPH spent more time on leisure on weekend-days compared to week-days, although this was more pronounced in the NPH group, some 1 hour and 7 minutes.

NPH students spent more time on university work on week-days by 38 minutes, and this increased to 1 hour and 20 minutes on weekend-days. Although both groups spent less time doing university work on weekend-days compared to week-days, the decline in time spent was more prominent for PH students, some 1 hour 58 minutes. Participation rates decreased on weekend-days in both groups. However, the sharpest decline was found in the PH group with only 50.0 per cent spent time doing university work on weekend-days. There was little difference between PH and NPH students in their participation rates, variability or time they spent on eating and personal care.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, PH students tended to spend more time on travel than NPH students by 51 minutes on week-days as an upshot of their travel to and from university, and this decreased to 13 minutes on weekend-days. PH students tended to spend less time travelling on weekend-days compared with week-days, although the converse was found for NPH students. Moreover, participation rates were higher among PH students than NPH students, a consistent finding on week-days and weekend-days.

Finally, PH students spent more time doing work than NPH students by 30 minutes on week-days, although this decreased to 11 minutes on weekend-days.

Furthermore, participation rates for work were higher among PH students than NPH students, a consistent finding on week-days and weekend-days. Both groups spent more time doing work on weekend-days than week-days. However, this was more pronounced among NPH students to 3 hours and 5 minutes (Table 4.4.3).

Table 4.4.4 shows how first generation students and second generation students spent time in the categories of activities on week-days and weekend-days. There were few differences between first generation students and second generation students in the time they spent sleeping on either week-days or weekend-days. However, time spent sleeping on weekend-days was greater among first generation students by some 57 minutes.

There were no differences in the time spent on leisure activities between first generation and second generation students on week-days. However, on weekend-days second generation students spent 16 minutes more than first generation students on leisure. Both groups tended to spend more time on leisure activities on weekend-days compared with week-days. However, this increase was greater in second generation students by 1 hour and 14 minutes.

Table 4.4.4 Time use on week-days and weekend-days by category of activity in 2012: students' family HE history

Activity	Weekday or Weekend (WD/WE)	First generation		Second generation		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)*
Sleep	**WD**	123 (100.0)	526.0 (68.9)	77 (100.0)	532.6 (72.2)	200 (100.0%)	528.5 (70.0)
	WE	123 (100.0)	582.6 (100.1)	77 (100.0)	578.4 (98.8)	200 (100.0%)	581.0 (99.4)
Leisure time	**WD**	123 (100.0)	390.0 (118.7)	77 (100.0)	386.5 (122.1)	200 (100.0%)	388.6 (119.7)
	WE	123 (100.0)	434.6 (165.8)	77 (100.0)	457.2 (175.4)	200 (100.0%)	443.3 (169.5)
University	**WD**	123 (100.0)	242.2 (96.0)	77 (100.0)	245.1 (106.0)	198 (99.0%)	245.8 (97.1)
	WE	84 (68.3)	152.0 (104.0)	43 (55.8)	188.7 (136.4)	127 (63.5%)	164.4 (116.7)
Eating & personal care	**WD**	123 (100.0)	167.7 (57.0)	77 (100.0)	157.3 (53.0)	200 (100.0%)	163.7 (55.6)
	WE	123 (100.0)	155.8 (66.0)	77 (100.0)	155.6 (88.1)	200 (100.0%)	156.6 (74.4)
Travel	**WD**	105 (85.4)	77.5 (55.6)	69 (89.6)	71.7 (43.6)	174 (87.0%)	75.2 (51.1)
	WE	90 (73.2)	84.8 (60.6)	51 (66.2)	94.1 (64.6)	141 (70.5%)	88.2 (62.0)
Work	**WD**	52 (42.3)	68.3 (65.3)	26 (33.8)	95.5 (130.5)	78 (39.0%)	77.4 (92.3)
	WE	34 (27.6)	250.6 (124.6)	15 (19.5)	284.0 (184.8)	49 (24.5%)	260.8 (144.5)

***The participation mean is the same as the total mean when the participation rate is 100%**

There were also no differences between first generation students and second generation students in time they spent on university work on week-days. However, second generation students spent 37 minutes more than first generation students on their university work on weekend-days. Participation rates were higher in the first generation group on both week-days and weekend-days.

Second generation students spent 27 minutes more than first generation students on work on week-days and this increased to 33 minutes on weekend-days. Both groups of students spent more time at work on weekend-days compared to week-days, although the increase was greater amongst second generation students. However, participation rates were higher in the first generation group compared to the second generation group, a consistent finding for week-days and weekend-days (Table 4.4.4).

4.5 Summary of patterns of overall time use in 2012

There were differences in how time use was structured by category of activity on week-days compared with weekend-days. Students spent over 63.8 per cent (15 hours and 17 minutes) on week-days either sleeping or doing leisure activities, and this increased to 71.1 per cent (17 hours and 4 minutes) on weekend-days. This residual 8 hours and 43 minutes on week-days, and 6 hours and 56 minutes on weekend-days were spent on the remaining categories of activity: university work; eating and personal care; travel; work and other. Indeed, time spent doing university work at weekend-days

declined overall, which in a sense, created additional time for more sleeping, leisure activities and work.

Students' time use had a temporal dimension, which shaped the activities they undertook. Leisure time on week-days tended to be restricted, by time spent doing university work. However, this changed on weekend-days, and students spent more of their morning doing leisure activities. Paid work was something students did in the afternoon and evening on week-days, although they changed to mornings and afternoons on weekend-days.

Notwithstanding the high variances recorded by all the sub-groups of students in their time use, sex differences showed females generally spent more time sleeping than males. There were sex differences too in the time spent doing leisure activities. Males spent 4.9 percentage points more time on leisure than females on week-days, although this diminished to 3.8 percentage points more on weekend-days. Males spent less time on week-days than females on their university work. Moreover, females spent considerably more time on meals and personal care than males, a consistent finding for both week-days and weekend-days. More females spent time on travel than males. Indeed, those females who did travel spent longer than males who travelled. This too was consistent for week-days and weekend-days. There was a similar trend for work, with higher numbers of females doing work compared to males. However, male workers tended to spend more time at work than female workers.

The age group of students and their term-time residence also resulted in some interesting patterns of time use. For example, in terms of age, younger students tended to sleep more, spend more time on leisure than older students. Moreover, younger students generally spent less time on their university coursework, and paid work than older students. Over two thirds of students lived away during term time (NPH), and these students tended to sleep more than those who remained in the family home (PH). Moreover, NPH students recorded more time doing leisure activities than PH students, whereas PH students spent more time on travel and paid work than NPH students.

Student's family HE history data showed that there were few differences in time use between first generation and second generation students, with the exception of leisure activities, university work and paid work. Second generation students spent more time doing university work and leisure activities on weekend-days than first generation students. Moreover, they spent more time doing paid work on both week-days and weekend-days.

Having summarized the main features of time use among the panel of first year students in 2012 in this chapter, the following chapter presents an analysis of the features and patterns of overall time use amongst the panel of university students in their second year at university in 2013.

Chapter 5

Students' time use in 2013: continuity alongside change

5.1 Introduction

This chapter identifies the main features and patterns of overall time use among the panel of students in 2013 during the second year of their degree programme. In particular, the chapter highlights changes since 2012. First, there is a description of the panel characteristics including any changes. This is followed by a presentation of the results from time use diaries completed in 2013. Time use was examined following the same procedure used in 2012, and the subsequent findings are illustrated alongside findings from 2012 for ease of comparison. Patterns of time use were also examined in relation to sub-groups of students: in relation to their sex; age; term-time residence (PH and NPH) and their family HE history (first generation or second generation student). Moreover, attention is drawn specifically to the important changes from 2012 in each sub-section. Finally, this chapter concludes with a summary of trends drawing attention to the important changes in how students spent their time since 2012.

5.2 Characteristics of the panel in 2013

Table 5.2.1 shows key characteristics of the panel in 2013, alongside the data from 2012.

Table 5.2.1 Characteristics of the panel in 2013 with 2012 for comparison

	2012 (N=200)		2013 (N=156)	
	N	%	N	%
Sex				
Males	65	32.5	51	32.7
Females	135	67.5	105	67.3
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0
Age				
18	67	33.5	-	-
19	81	40.5	55	35.3
20 and over	52	26.0	101	64.7
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0
Term-time residence				
Parental Home	28	14.0	22	14.1
Non-Parental Home	172	86.0	134	85.9
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0
Family HE history				
First Generation	123	61.5	93	59.6
Second Generation	77	38.5	63	40.4
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0
Ethnicity				
White British	181	90.5	143	91.7
White other	8	4.0	6	3.8
Other	11	5.5	7	4.5
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0

	2012 (N=200)		2013 (N=156)	
	N	%	N	%
Religious denomination				
None	105	52.5	88	56.4
CoE	69	34.5	49	31.4
Catholic	18	9.0	14	9
Other	8	4.0	5	3.2
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0
Disability/Long-term illness special educational needs				
Yes	13	6.5	10	6.4
No	187	93.5	146	93.6
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0
Highest attained qualification				
A-Level	153	76.5	123	78.8
Access to HE	15	7.5	16	10.3
B-TEC	15	7.5	11	7.1
Other	17	8.5	6	3.8
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0
Secondary school				
Selective State	22	11.0	18	11.5
Comprehensive	164	82.0	128	82.1
Private/public	11	5.1	8	5.1
Other	3	1.5	2	1.3
Total	200	100.0	156	100.0

The greatest change was age-related, with almost two thirds (64.7 per cent) of the panel either 20 years or older. The remaining 35.3 per cent were 19 years old. There were further, albeit smaller changes in some of the panel characteristics, but these were of the order of a few percentage points. Overall, in spite of some attrition, the panel remained relatively stable in terms of characteristics (Table 5.2.1).

5.3 Students' time use in 2013: week-days and weekend-days

Table 5.3.1 shows a comparison between students' time use in 2012 and 2013. Using the total mean minutes and participation rates for each of the 7 broad categories of activities, both week-day and weekend-day are shown for each time point. There were relatively small changes evident in relation to sleeping, which showed some continuity with 2012.

The biggest change in time use in 2013 was an increase in time spent on eating and personal care on week-days of 1 hour and 11 minutes. Further analysis of the activities which form this category found that the total mean minutes for 'getting ready' on a week-day increased from 49.7 minutes in 2012 to 2 hours and 5 minutes in 2013. Time spent doing (mainly paid) work on a week-day increased by 11 minutes, this increased by 46 minutes on a weekend-day. Participation rates for paid work increased in 2013 (0.7 percentage points on a week-day, and 12.7 percentage points on a weekend-day), indicating a larger proportion of the panel were working at the weekend in 2013.

Table 5.3.1 Students' time use in 2012 and 2013: week-days and weekend-days

		2012		2013	
Category of activities	**Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)**	**Total mean minutes***	**Participation rate %**	**Total mean minutes***	**Participation rate %**
Sleeping	**WD**	528.5	100.0	533.1	100.0
	WE	581.0	100.0	589.1	100.0
Leisure	**WD**	408.8	100.0	393.7	100.0
	WE	472.8	100.0	441.9	100.0
University	**WD**	243.4	100.0	238.5	100.0
	WE	104.4	63.5	95.5	64.1
Eating and personal care	**WD**	163.7	100.0	235.0	100.0
	WE	155.8	100.0	150.0	100.0
Travel	**WD**	65.4	87.0	73.3	91.0
	WE	62.2	70.5	53.5	67.3
Work	**WD**	30.2	39.0	41.0	39.7
	WE	63.9	24.5	110.0	37.2
Other	**WD**	25.4	66.5	23.3	53.9
	WE	34.8	45.5	17.5	28.9

*** per person, per day**

There were also changes in time use relating to leisure activities, university work, and other activities. The largest of these changes was a decline in the time students spent doing leisure activities by 15 minutes on a week-day, and 31 minutes on a weekend-day. Time spent doing university work also declined on a week-day by 5 minutes, and on a weekend-day by 9 minutes. Overall, however, in 2013 sleeping, leisure and eating and personal care accounted for approximately 81 per cent of a week-day and 82 per cent of a weekend-day, compared to 76 per cent and 84 per cent in 2012 respectively (Table 5.3.1).

5.4 Time spent on main categories in 2013: sub-group analysis

Table 5.4.1 and Table 5.4.2 show how males and females spent their time on week-days and weekend-days, as outlined in Chapter 4 – section 4.3. Males tended to spend a little more time sleeping than they did in 2012 (16 minutes on average on week-days). However, females continued to spend more time sleeping than males on weekend-days in 2013 (20 minutes), which was consistent with findings in 2012. Furthermore, both males and females reported greater variability in the time they spent sleeping compared with the previous year: a consistent finding for both week-days and weekend-days. In other words, there was less continuity in sleeping patterns on a daily basis.

Table 5.4.1 and table 5.4.2 show sex differences remained consistent with findings from 2012, and males spent more time on leisure activities than females. Indeed, the difference between the sexes diverged to 1 hour and 40 minutes on weekend-days. Moreover, while both sexes continued to spend more time on leisure activities on weekend-days compared with week-days, there was a decline in the time females spent on leisure activities on weekend-days compared with 2012, by 46 minutes.

Table 5.4.1 Comparison of patterns of week-day time use in 2012 and 2013: males and females

Week-day Activity	Males 2012	Males 2013	Females 2012	Females 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Sleeping	521.2 (73.8) 65 (100.0%)	537.4 (82.9) 51 (100.0%)	532.1 (68.2) 135 (100.0%)	531.0 (70.7) 105 (100.0%)	528.5 (70.0) 200 (100.0%)	533.1 (74.7) 156 (100.0%)
Leisure	440.2 (112.7) 65 (100.0%)	427.1 (120.4) 51 (100.0%)	363.8 (115.4) 135 (100.0%)	351.8 (129.4 105 (100.0%)	388.6 119.7) 200 (100.0%)	376.4 (131.0) 156 (100.0%)
University	228.5 (89.0) 64 (98.5%)	234.4 (109.5) 51 (100.0%)	250.5 (104.0) 134 (99.3%)	242.8 (103.1) 104 (99.1%)	245.8 (97.1) 198 (99.0%)	240.0 (104.9) 155 (99.4%)
Eating and personal care	150.5 (60.8) 65 (100.0%)	178.3 (81.2) 51 (100.0%)	170.1 (51.9) 135 (100.0%)	253.7 (92.8) 105 (100.0%)	163.7 (55.6) 200 (100.0%)	229.0 (95.7) 156 (100.0%)
Travel	62.7 (42.1) 53 (81.5%)	70.2 (42.4) 43 (84.3%)	80.6 (53.8) 121 (89.6%)	85.1 (54.3) 99 (94.3%)	75.2 (51.1) 174 (87.0%)	80.6 (51.3) 142 (91.0%)
Work	92.1 (135.7) 23 (35.4%)	106.7 (116.3) 18 (35.3%)	77.4 (92.3) 55 (40.7%)	102.0 (76.7) 44 (41.9%)	77.4 (92.3) 78 (39.0%)	103.4 (89.0) 62 (39.7%)

Table 5.4.2 Comparison of patterns of weekend-day time use in 2012 and 2013: males and females

Weekend-day Activity	Males 2012	Males 2013	Females 2012	Females 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Sleeping	575.3 (100.0) 65 (100.0%)	575.5 (110.3) 51 (100.0%)	583.7 (99.3) 135 (100.0%)	595.7 (111.0) 105 (100.0%)	581.0 (99.4) 200 (100.0%)	589.1 (110.9) 156 (100.0%)
Leisure	487.2 (175.5) 65 (100.0%)	496.5 (171.7) 51 (100.0%)	422.2 (163.0) 135 (100.0%)	400.1 (165.9) 105 (100.0%)	443.3 (169.5) 200 (100.0%)	431.8 (173.3) 156 (100.0)
University	169.3 (117.2) 42 (64.6%)	158.4 (77.5) 32 (62.8%)	162.0 (117.1) 85 (63.0%)	144.5 (107.6) 68 (64.8%)	164.4 (116.7) 127 (63.5%)	149.0 (98.8) 100 (64.1%)
Eating and personal care	131.5 (67.7) 65 (100.0%)	125.9 (71.9) 51 (100.0%)	167.4 (75.9) 135 (100.0%)	161.7 (77.5) 105 (100.0%)	156.6 (74.4) 200 (100.0%)	146.3 (73.8) 156 (100.0%)
Travel	87.6 (58.7) 43 (66.2%)	77.7 (81.9) 28 (54.9%)	88.5 (63.7) 98 (72.6%)	80.1 (65.4) 77 (73.3%)	88.2 (62.0) 141 (70.5%)	79.4 (69.8) 105 (67.3%)
Work	305.0 (189.2) 12 (18.5%)	318.2 (198.1) 14 (27.5)	246.5 (126.6) 37 (27.4%)	288.8 (143.2) 44 (41.9%)	260.8 (144.5) 49 (24.5%)	295.9 (156.8) 58 (37.2%)

The findings also revealed that patterns of time use for university work remained consistent with findings from 2012. However, females continued to spend more time on their studies than males on week-days, although this difference decreased from 22 minutes to 6 minutes. The converse was found on weekend-days. Indeed the difference between males and females diverged from 7 minutes to 14 minutes on weekend-days. However, this was largely a result of an 18 minute decline in the time females spent on university work on weekend-days since 2012, compared with a smaller, 11 minute decline for males.

Although females continued to spend more time (1 hour and 21 minutes on week-days) on eating and personal care than male students, Further analysis found that this increase was specifically due to a large increase in time they spent 'getting ready'. Both males and females continued to spend less time on these activities on weekend-days compared with week-days: males by 54.4 minutes and females by 99.8 minutes.

Table 5.4.1 and Table 5.4.2 also reveal that females continued to spend more time on travel than males, by 15 minutes on week-days, although this difference converged to 2 minutes on weekend-days. Moreover, compared with 2012, there was an increase in the time males and females spent travelling on week-days, and a decline on weekend-days. Participation rates showed there were 142 students who spent time on travel on week-days, some 91.0 per cent. This decreased to 105 students on weekend-days, some 67.3 per cent.

The majority of work-related time use remained mainly for paid work in 2013. Indeed, some 89.0 per cent of work was paid, compared with 11.0 per cent

unpaid/voluntary work. Female participation rates continued to be higher than male participation rates: a consistent finding for both week-days and weekend-days. Moreover, there was an overall increase in the time spent by both males and females doing work, compared with 2012. Males spent an additional 15 minutes more at work on week-days, and females an additional 25 minutes compared with 2012. There was a similar pattern on weekend-days. While males spent an additional 13 minutes at work, females spent an additional 28 minutes compared to 2012 (Table 5.4.1, Table 5.4.2).

Table 5.4.3 and Table 5.4.4 show comparisons of patterns of time use for week-days and weekend-days respectively by age group.

Table 5.4.3 Comparison of patterns of week-day time use in 2012 and 2013: age groups

Week-day Activity	19 years 2012	19 years 2013	20 years 2012	20 years 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Sleeping	521.9 (77.6) 81 (100.0%)	531.3 (73.8) 55 (100.0%)	521.8 (65.9) 52 (100.0%)	534.1 (75.5) 101 (100.0%)	528.5 (70.0) 200 (100.0%)	533.1 (74.7) 156 (100.0%)
Leisure	406.0 (118.1) 81 (100.0%)	412.8 (116.2) 55 (100.0%)	331.0 (131.8) 52 (100.0%)	356.6 (134.9) 101 (100.0%)	388.6 (119.7) 200 (100.0%)	376.4 (131.0) 156 (100.0%)
University	245.6 (103.9) 80 (98.8%)	229.8 (116.3) 54 (98.2%)	269.0 (106.4) 52 (100.0%)	245.5 (98.6) 101 (100.0%)	245.8 (97.1) 198 (99.0%)	240.0 (105.0) 155 (99.4%)
Eating and personal care	162.8 (59.9) 81 (100.0%)	236.6 (89.9) 55 (100.0%)	168.5 (55.1) 52 (100.0%)	224.9 (98.9) 101 (100.0%)	163.7 (55.6) 200 (100.0%)	229.0 (95.7) 156 (100.0%)
Travel	80.6 (56.8) 71 (88.0%)	68.4 (43.1) 51 (92.7%)	76.7 (56.3) 46 (88.5%)	87.4 (54.3) 91 (90.1%)	75.2 (51.1) 174 (87.0%)	80.6 (51.2) 142 (91.0%)
Work	48.4 (49.6) 32 (39.5%)	92.8 (59.3) 17 (30.9%)	121.0 (123.8) 29 (55.8%)	107.3 (98.2) 45 (44.6%)	77.4 (92.3) 78 (39.0%)	103.4 (89.0) 62 (39.7%)

*** No students of 18 years in 2013**

Table 5.4.4 Comparison of patterns of weekend-day time use in 2012 and 2013: age groups

Weekend-day Activity	19 years 2012	19 years 2013	20 years 2012	20 years 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Sleeping	588.8 (105.7) 81 (100.0%)	607.1 (109.2) 55 (100.0%)	564.8 (87.4) 52 (100.0%)	579.4 (111.1) 101 (100.0%)	581.0 (99.4) 200 (100.0%)	589.1 (110.9) 156 (100.0%)
Leisure	442.9 (171.6) 81 (100.0%)	459.3 (149.2) 55 (100.0%)	414.5 (173.0) 52 (100.0%)	416.7 (184.3) 101 (100.0%)	443.3 (169.5) 200 (100.0%)	431.8 (173.3) 156 (100.0)
University	175.6 (139.6) 54 (67.0%)	133.6 (108.6) 32 (58.2%)	174.7 (110.4) 31 (59.6%)	156.2 (93.8) 68 (67.3%)	164.4 (116.7) 127 (63.5%)	149.0 (98.8) 100 (64.1%)
Eating and personal care	156.8 (81.1) 81 (100.0%)	137.2 (64.8) 55 (100.0%)	166.2 (74.8) 52 (100.0%)	151.4 (78.2) 101 (100.0%)	156.6 (74.4) 200 (100.0%)	146.3 (73.8) 156 (100.0%)
Travel	86.1 (61.9) 54 (66.7%)	90.0 (87.8) 34 (61.8%)	84.7 (46.5) 34 (65.4%)	74.4 (59.3) 71 (70.3%)	88.2 (62.0) 141 (70.5%)	79.4 (69.8) 105 (67.3%)
Work	248.3 (125.5) 18 (22.2%)	253.3 (138.5) 18 (32.7%)	314.2 (144.5) 19 (36.5%)	315.0 (162.3) 40 (39.6%)	260.8 (144.5) 49 (24.5%)	295.9 (156.8) 58 (37.2%)

*** No students of 18 years in 2013**

Table 5.4.3 and Table 5.4.4 show both age-related sub-groups spent more time sleeping on weekend-days compared with week-days. This increase in time spent sleeping on weekend-days was more prominent among the 19 years sub-group (61 minutes), compared with the older sub-group (22 minutes). There was no difference between the age-related sub-groups in the time they spent sleeping on week-days. However, the 19 years sub-group spent more time sleeping (36 minutes) on weekend-days, which was consistent with findings in 2012.

The 19 years sub-group tended to spend more time on leisure activities than the older sub-group: a consistent finding for both week-days (61 minutes) and weekend-days (56 minutes). Furthermore, this was consistent with patterns of time use in 2012, although the difference between the sub-groups converged by 30 minutes on week-days and 18 minutes on weekend-days. Notwithstanding the overall decline in time spent on leisure, both sub-groups continued to spend more time on leisure on weekend-days compared with week-days, which was consistent with findings in 2012. However, the decline was more prominent among the 20 years and over sub-group.

Patterns of time use for university work were comparable with 2012. Students in the 20 years and over sub-group spent more time on their studies than students in the younger sub-group: a consistent finding for both week-days (20 minutes) and weekend-days (23 minutes). Moreover, participation rates for doing university work on weekend-days were higher among students in the older sub-group (67.3 per cent), compared with the younger sub-group (58.2 per cent). This too was consistent with findings in 2012.

Table 5.4.3 and Table 5.4.4 also reveal, on week-days students in the younger sub-group spent more time (13 minutes), on eating and personal care than students from the older sub-group. The converse was found on weekend-days, and students in the older sub-group spent most time (22 minutes). These were a marked change from findings in 2012. Indeed, the difference between the sub-groups almost doubled on week-days from 7 minutes in 2012.

Students in the older sub-group spent more time (19 minutes) on travel, than those in the younger sub-group on week-days. Conversely, students in the older sub-group spent less time (16 minutes) on travel, than those in the younger sub-group on weekend-days: both comparable with findings in 2012. Moreover, patterns in participation rates were also consistent with findings in 2012.

There were higher participation rates in work amongst the older sub-group on week-days and weekend-days respectively (44.6 and 39.6 per cent), compared with the younger sub-group on week-days and weekend-days respectively (30.9 and 32.7 per cent). These patterns of time use in work were comparable with findings in 2012, although week-day participation fell in both sub-groups, while weekend-day participation increased by a few percentage points in each case. Moreover, students from both sub-groups continued to spend longer at work on weekend-days compared with week-days (Table 5.4.3, Table 5.4.4).

Table 5.4.5 and Table 5.4.6 show patterns of time use for week-days and weekend-days respectively by term-time residence (PH and NPH).

NPH students continued to spend more time sleeping than PH students. This was consistent for both week-days and weekend-days, although the difference

on weekend-days was greater, some 1 hour and 16 minutes more. This was largely the result of PH students spending less time sleeping (29 minutes) on weekend-days compared with data from 2012. Indeed, PH students spent less time sleeping on weekend-days compared to week-days in 2013. The contrary was found for NPH students, who spent an additional 1 hour and 6 minutes sleeping on weekend-days compared to week-days. There was greater variability in the time spent sleeping by both PH and NPH students compared with 2012.

Table 5.4.5 Comparison of patterns of week-day time use in 2012 and 2013: term-time residence

Week-day Activity	PH 2012	PH 2013	NPH 2012	NPH 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Sleeping	518.6 (60.9) 28 (100.0%)	525.0 (86.1) 22 (100.0%)	530.2 (71.5) 172 (100.0%)	534.4 (72.9) 134 (100.0%)	528.5 (70.0) 200 (100.0%)	533.1 (74.7) 156 (100.0%)
Leisure	367.1 (139.4) 28 (100.0%)	323.2 (110.3) 22 (100.0%)	392.1 (116.3) 172 (100.0%)	385.1 (132.4) 134 (100.0%)	388.6 119.7) 200 (100.0%)	376.4 (131.0) 156 (100.0%)
University	210.9 (102.8) 28 (100.0%)	231.0 (88.2) 22 (100.0%)	248.7 (98.5) 170 (98.8%)	241.5 (107.7) 133 (99.3%)	245.8 (97.1) 198 (99.0%)	240.0 (104.9) 155 (99.4%)
Eating and personal care	163.9 (61.3) 28 (100.0%)	222.5 (102.6) 22 (100.0%)	163.7 (54.8) 172 (100.0%)	230.1 (94.9) 134 (100.0%)	163.7 (55.6) 200 (100.0%)	229.0 (95.7) 156 (100.0%)
Travel	117.8 (55.0) 27 (96.4%)	121.1 (58.4) 22 (100.0%)	67.3 (46.4) 147 (85.5%)	73.2 (46.4) 120 (90.0%)	75.2 (51.1) 174 (87.0%)	80.6 (51.3) 142 (91.0%)
Work	101.2 (79.7) 15 (53.6%)	112.2 (60.5) 10 (45.5%)	71.7 (94.7) 63 (36.6%)	101.7 (88.9) 52 (38.8%)	77.4 (92.3) 78 (39.0%)	103.4 (89.0) 62 (39.7%)

Table 5.4.6 Comparison of patterns of weekend-day time use in 2012 and 2013: term-time residence

Weekend-day Activity	PH 2012	PH 2013	NPH 2012	NPH 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Sleeping	552.9 (80.9) 28 (100.0%)	523.6 (83.7) 22 (100.0%)	585.5 (101.5) 172 (100.0%)	599.9 (111.3) 134 (100.0%)	581.0 (99.4) 200 (100.0%)	589.1 (110.9) 156 (100.0%)
Leisure	386.8 (176.4) 28 (100.0%)	397.5 (164.4) 22 (100.0%)	452.5 (167.1) 172 (100.0%)	437.5 (174.7) 134 (100.0%)	443.3 (169.5) 200 (100.0%)	431.8 (173.3) 156 (100.0)
University	93.2 (66.4) 14 (50.0%)	160.5 (123.3) 10 (45.5%)	173.2 (118.8) 113 (65.7%)	147.7 (96.5) 90 (67.2%)	164.4 (116.7) 127 (63.5%)	149.0 (98.8) 100 (64.1%)
Eating and personal care	153.2 (71.2) 28 (100.0%)	152.7 (86.8) 22 (100.0%)	156.2 (75.9) 172 (100.0%)	145.4 (71.7) 134 (100.0%)	156.6 (74.4) 200 (100.0%)	146.3 (73.8) 156 (100.0%)
Travel	98.7 (60.3) 26 (92.9%)	87.6 (51.0) 20 (90.9%)	85.8 (62.4) 115 (66.9%)	77.5 (73.6) 85 (63.4%)	88.2 (62.0) 141 (70.5%)	79.4 (69.8) 105 (67.3%)
Work	267.5 (142.1) 18 (64.3%)	294.0 (177.4) 15 (68.2%)	256.9 (148.0) 31 (18.0%)	296.5 (151.2) 43 (32.1%)	260.8 (144.5) 49 (24.5%)	295.9 (156.8) 58 (37.2%)

Notwithstanding the overall decline in time spent on leisure activities, NPH students continued to spend more time on leisure activities than PH students by 51 minutes on a week-day, and 37 minutes on a weekend-day. Moreover, PH and NPH students continued to spend more time on leisure activities on weekend-days compared to week-days. There were some differences from findings in 2012 in terms of variability, reflected in the standard deviations. PH students were less variable and NPH students were more variable in the amount of time spent on leisure, compared to 2012.

All the students spent time on some university work on week-days although participation decreased on weekend-days: a consistent finding with 2012. This decline in participation was more evident among NPH students. Their participation fell from 83.7 per cent in 2012, to 67.2 per cent on weekend-days in 2013. Moreover, there were changes in the patterns of time use both PH and NPH students spent on university work in 2013 compared with 2012. PH students spent an additional 20 minutes on their studies, and NPH students spent 9 minutes less on week-days compared with 2012. However, notwithstanding the fall in participation rates on weekend-days, both PH and NPH students spent more of their time on their studies on weekend-days by some 67 minutes and 26 minutes respectively, compared with 2012 (Table 5.4.5 and Table 5.4.6).

Both residential sub-groups were found to have similar patterns of time use in their eating and personal care. The aforementioned increase in time spent on 'getting ready' on week-days was found in both PH and NPH students. PH students spent more time on travel than NPH students by some 48 minutes on

week-days and 10 minutes on weekend-days. This showed continuity in their travel time use since 2012. Participation rates remained high for both sub-groups, albeit they were highest among the PH students: a consistent finding with 2012.

Time spent doing work increased in 2013 for both residential sub-groups. The difference between PH and NPH students diverged since 2012. This was largely the result of a more prominent increase in time spent doing work by NPH students of some 30 minutes on week-days and 40 minutes on weekend-days. PH students time at work increased by 11 minutes and 26 minutes respectively. In terms of participation rates, PH students increased slightly by 4 percentage points, although NPH students increased by 14 percentage points on weekend-days (Table 5.4.5, Table 5.4.6).

Table 5.4.7 and Table 5.4.8 show patterns of time use by family HE background.

Table 5.4.7 Comparison of patterns of week-day time use in 2012 and 2013: students' family HE history

Week-day Activity	First generation 2012	First generation 2013	Second generation 2012	Second generation 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Sleeping	526.0 (68.9) 123 (100.0%)	531.3 (83.5) 93 (100.0%)	532.6 (72.2) 77 (100.0%)	535.8 (59.8) 63 (100.0%)	528.5 (70.0) 200 (100.0%)	533.1 (74.7) 156 (100.0%)
Leisure	390.0 (118.7) 123 (100.0%)	381.9 (132.3) 93 (100.0%)	386.5 (122.1) 77 (100.0%)	368.2 (129.8) 63 (100.0%)	388.6 119.7) 200 (100.0%)	376.4 (131.0) 156 (100.0%)
University	242.2 (96.0) 123 (100.0%)	242.3 (117.1) 92 (98.9%)	245.1 (106.0) 77 (100.0%)	236.8 (85.0) 63 (100.0%)	245.8 (97.1) 198 (99.0%)	240.0 (104.9) 155 (99.4%)
Eating and personal care	167.7 (57.0) 123 (100.0%)	232.0 (93.8) 93 (100.0%)	157.3 (53.0) 77 (100.0%)	239.4 (104.5) 63 (100.0%)	163.7 (55.6) 200 (100.0%)	229.0 (95.7) 156 (100.0%)
Travel	77.5 (55.6) 105 (85.4%)	80.6 (57.5) 82 (88.2%)	71.7 (43.6) 69 (89.6%)	72.0 (40.2) 60 (95.2%)	75.2 (51.1) 174 (87.0%)	80.6 (51.3) 142 (91.0%)
Work	68.3 (65.3) 52 (42.3%)	92.8 (62.8) 32 (34.4%)	95.5 (130.5) 26 (33.8%)	114.6 (110.4) 30 (47.6%)	77.4 (92.3) 78 (39.0%)	103.4 (89.0) 62 (39.7%)

Table 5.4.8 Comparison of patterns of weekend-day time use in 2012 and 2013: students' family HE history

Weekend-day Activity	First generation 2012	First generation 2013	Second generation 2012	Second generation 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Sleeping	582.6 (100.1) 123 (100.0%)	578.9 (117.5) 93 (100.0%)	578.4 (98.8) 77 (100.0%)	604.3 (99.1) 63 (100.0%)	581.0 (99.4) 200 (100.0%)	589.1 (110.9) 156 (100.0%)
Leisure	434.6 (165.8) 123 (100.0%)	453.4 (170.1) 93 (100.0%)	457.2 (175.4) 77 (100.0%)	400.2 (174.6) 63 (100.0%)	443.3 (169.5) 200 (100.0%)	431.8 (173.3) 156 (100.0)
University	152.0 (104.0) 84 (68.3%)	141.6 (86.5) 57 (61.3%)	188.7 (136.4) 43 (55.8%)	158.7 (113.4) 43 (68.3%)	164.4 (116.7) 127 (63.5%)	149.0 (98.8) 100 (64.1%)
Eating and personal care	155.8 (66.0) 123 (100.0%)	149.5 (77.0) 93 (100.0%)	155.6 (88.1) 77 (100.0%)	141.7 (69.3) 63 (100.0%)	156.6 (74.4) 200 (100.0%)	146.3 (73.8) 156 (100.0%)
Travel	84.8 (60.6) 90 (73.2%)	93.4 (86.5) 57 (61.3%)	94.1 (64.6) 51 (66.2%)	62.8 (36.6) 48 (80.0%)	88.2 (62.0) 141 (70.5%)	79.4 (69.8) 105 (67.3%)
Work	250.6 (124.6) 34 (27.6%)	309.4 (148.0) 32 (34.4%)	284.0 (184.8) 15 (19.5%)	279.2 (168.4) 26 (41.3%)	260.8 (144.5) 49 (24.5%)	295.9 (156.8) 58 (37.2%)

Table 5.4.7 and Table 5.4.8 show second generation students spent more time sleeping than first generation students on weekend-days by some 25 minutes. This was a change from findings in 2012, when first generation students spent more time sleeping on weekend-days by 4 minutes. There was no difference found in week-day data since 2012, which indicated some continuity.

First generation students spent more time on leisure activities than second generation students, for week-days (14 minutes) and weekend-days (42 minutes). This differed from 2012 where no difference was found on week-days and the converse was found on weekend-days. Second generation students spent more time on leisure than first generation students by 16 minutes. Variability in the time spent on leisure activities increased on weekend-days compared with week-days: a consistent finding with 2012.

There was little difference in time spent on university work, between first generation and second generation students on week-days. However, second generation students spent 17 minutes more on their studies than first generation students on weekend-days. This pattern is consistent with findings in 2012. The overall decline in time spent on university work since 2012 was more prominent in second generation students. Patterns of participation rates reversed in 2013: second generation participation increased by some 12.5 percentage points, whereas first generation participation fell by 7.0 percentage points on weekend-days (Table 5.4.7 and Table 5.4.8).

Patterns of time use in eating and personal care were found to be similar to those found in 2012. The aforementioned increase in time spent on 'getting ready' on week-days was found in both first generation and second generation students. The difference between first generation and second generation students in the time they spent on travel on week-days was only 9 minutes. However, this difference increased on weekend-days to some 31 minutes. This increase was the result of a 30 minute decline in the time second generation students spent on travel on weekend-days in 2013.

A greater proportion of second generation students spend time doing work compared with first generation students and this is reflected in their participation rates. The difference was 13.2 percentage points on week-days and 6.9 percentage points on weekend-days. Indeed, participation among second generation students increased in 2013: a consistent finding for both week-days and weekend-days. In terms of the time spent at work, it was second generation students who spent 22 minutes more time than first generation students on week-days. This was consistent with findings from 2012. However, the weekend-day data showed first generation students spent 30 minutes more at work than second generation students on weekend-days. This was a reversal of findings in 2012 (Table 5.4.7 and Table 5.4.8).

5.5 Summary of developments in students' patterns of overall time use in 2012 and 2013

The relationship between the six broad categories of time use remained relatively stable in relation to both week-days and weekend-days. However, there were some notable changes between 2012 and 2013 as students

made their transition from first to second year of their university course. For example, sleeping increased overall by around 1.0 per cent in 2013. Notwithstanding the high variances recorded by both sexes, findings showed females generally spent more time sleeping than males. There were marked sex differences in the time students spent doing leisure activities, and while time spent on leisure activities declined overall in 2013 compared with findings in 2012 by around 6.3 per cent, males continued to spend more time on leisure than females. Females however, spent considerably more time on meals and personal care than males, and this remained consistent over time. Time spent doing coursework declined in 2013 by almost 3.0 per cent overall, largely as a result of a decline in the time female students spent on their university activities. Travelling remained unchanged in 2013 and females continued to spend more time on travel than males. Time spent at work (mainly paid work), increased by some 62.3 per cent in 2013 albeit work remained the smallest category in terms of overall time use in minutes.

The age of students and their term-time residence also resulted in some interesting patterns of time use. For example, in terms of age, younger students (19 years) tended to sleep more at weekends and spend considerably more time on leisure than older students (20 years and over). Moreover, younger students generally spent less time on their university coursework, and paid work than older students.

Over two thirds of students lived away during term time (NPH), and these students tended to sleep more than those who remained in the family home

(PH). Moreover, NPH students recorded more time doing leisure activities than PH students, whereas PH students spent more time on travel and paid work than NPH students.

Student's family HE history data showed that the overall increase in sleep in 2013 was more evident in second generation students compared with first generation students. Moreover, the decline found in the data for time spent on leisure activities and university coursework in 2013 was also more evident in second generation students compared with first generation students.

The following chapter presents a more fine-grained analysis one particular aspect of students' use of time, namely their leisure domain. Chapters 4 and 5 have already documented the significance of leisure in students' lives.

Chapter 6

Students' leisure time in 2012

6.1 Introduction

This chapter starts by reiterating the parameters under which leisure is defined in the context of this study, and outlines four domains of leisure: screen time; socializing; physical activity; and other leisure. This is followed by a presentation of the results from students' time use diaries, which indicate how those students spent their leisure time. Each leisure domain was then explored in relation to different sub-groups of students as in Chapter 5. Finally, given the length and amount of detail presented in this chapter it concludes with a summary.

6.2 Leisure time and broad domains of leisure

Leisure time, in the context of this study, was defined in residual terms; that is to say, as time left over after 'work' and obligatory activities (e.g. eating and personal care), when the students were relatively free to choose how they spent their time (Roberts, 1997), from the list of available activity codes listed on page 5 of the time use diary. Figure 6.2.1 illustrates the main domains of leisure time used in this study Activities were categorized into four broad leisure domains, on the basis of the categorization of time use activities published in the MTUS user guide (CTUR, 2013). The categorisation process was judged to be necessary in order to aid clarity of reporting findings from a large volume of data.

Figure 6.2.1 Broad domains of leisure time used in this study

Leisure domain	Includes
Screen time	Watching TV or DVDs, social networking (Facebook, Twitter or other), using internet (not for social networking), listening to music, downloading music (YouTube, iTunes or similar) and video gaming.
Socializing	Shopping for pleasure, society/club meeting, going to see a film, play or concert, day out (other than for pleasure), chatting with friends, going to a party, going out for a meal, going out for a drink, drinking alcohol, and dancing.
Physical activity	Exercise (All Sport, keep fit, including University sport matches).
Other leisure	Reading, hobby (non-sporting) and religious worship.

6.3 Students' leisure time on week-days and weekend-days in 2012

Leisure time accounted for some 27.0 per cent (6 hours and 29 minutes) on a week-day, increasing to 30.8 per cent (7 hours and 23 minutes) on a weekend-day. Table 6.3.1 shows how much time was spent in each of the four broad leisure domains with the same standardized measures used in previous chapters. First, the total mean minutes per person, per day in each domain were calculated. This highlighted how overall patterns of leisure time on a week-day differed from a weekend-day. The participation rate of students in each domain is also shown.

Table 6.3.1 Time spent on each leisure domain in 2012: week-day and weekend-day

Leisure domain	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	Total mean minutes	Participation rate %
Screen time	**WD**	180.7	100.0
	WE	227.6	96.0
Socializing	**WD**	156.4	97.0
	WE	168.4	84.5
Physical activity	**WD**	30.8	63.0
	WE	18.4	32.5
Other leisure	**WD**	15.5	42.5
	WE	23.6	30.0

Table 6.3.1 shows screen time was the most popular leisure domain. Screen time in this context may include some time spent on university-related work. All students participated in an aspect of screen time on week-days, although participation decreased to 96.0 per cent on weekend-days. Indeed, screen time as a main activity accounted for some 46.5 per cent (3 hours and 1 minute) of all leisure time on a week-day, and 51.5 per cent (3 hours and 48 minutes) on a weekend-day. Socializing was the next most popular leisure domain, and participation was greatest on week-days (97 per cent), compared with weekend-days (84.5 per cent). Socializing accounted for 40.1 per cent (2 hours and 36 minutes) of all leisure time on a week-day, and 51.5 per cent (2 hours and 48 minutes) on a weekend-day. Almost two thirds of the sample did some physical activity on a week-day (63.0 per cent), although this diminished to less than a third (32.5 per cent) on a weekend-day.

Physical activity accounted for 8.0 per cent (31 minutes) of all leisure time on week-days, decreasing to 4.1 per cent (18 minutes) on weekend-days. Participation in other leisure activities was higher on week-days (42.5 per cent), compared with weekend-days (30.0 per cent). Other leisure accounted for 4.1 per cent (16 minutes) of all leisure time on week-days, and 5.4 per cent (24 minutes) on weekend-days. Overall, participation in all domains of leisure declined on weekend-day.

Figure 6.3.1 and Figure 6.3.2 show how leisure domains were distributed over a week-day and a weekend-day. Moreover, they illustrate the temporal aspect of leisure activities, and how participation in some activities can shape the participation in others. Figure 6.3.1 illustrates there were three main peaks of screen time evident in the data: the first between 8am – 12am, and another between 8pm – 12pm. Moreover, between these two broad peaks in screen time, there was a smaller peak between 3pm – 5pm. Unsurprisingly, perhaps, socializing as well as screen time was a key feature of time use throughout the day and night. Socializing grew steadily throughout the evening, and peaked between 12pm – 2am.

Physical activity peaked in the early morning, before 8am. There followed a relatively consistent pattern of physical activity until around 6:30 – 7pm, before a sharp decline. Other leisure tended to peak around 7am, before two further, albeit smaller peaks at 10am, and again between 9pm – 12pm.

Figure 6.3.1 Distribution of leisure domains on week-days in 2012

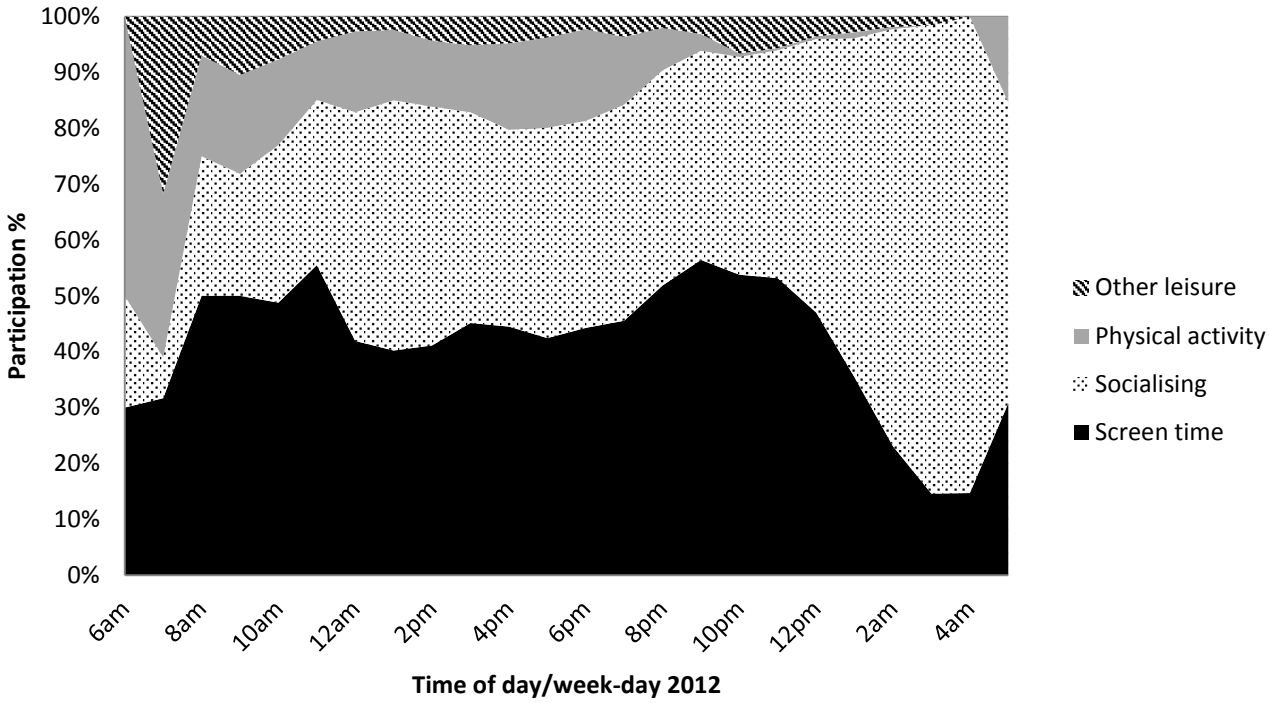


Figure 6.3.2 Distribution of leisure domains on weekend-days in 2012

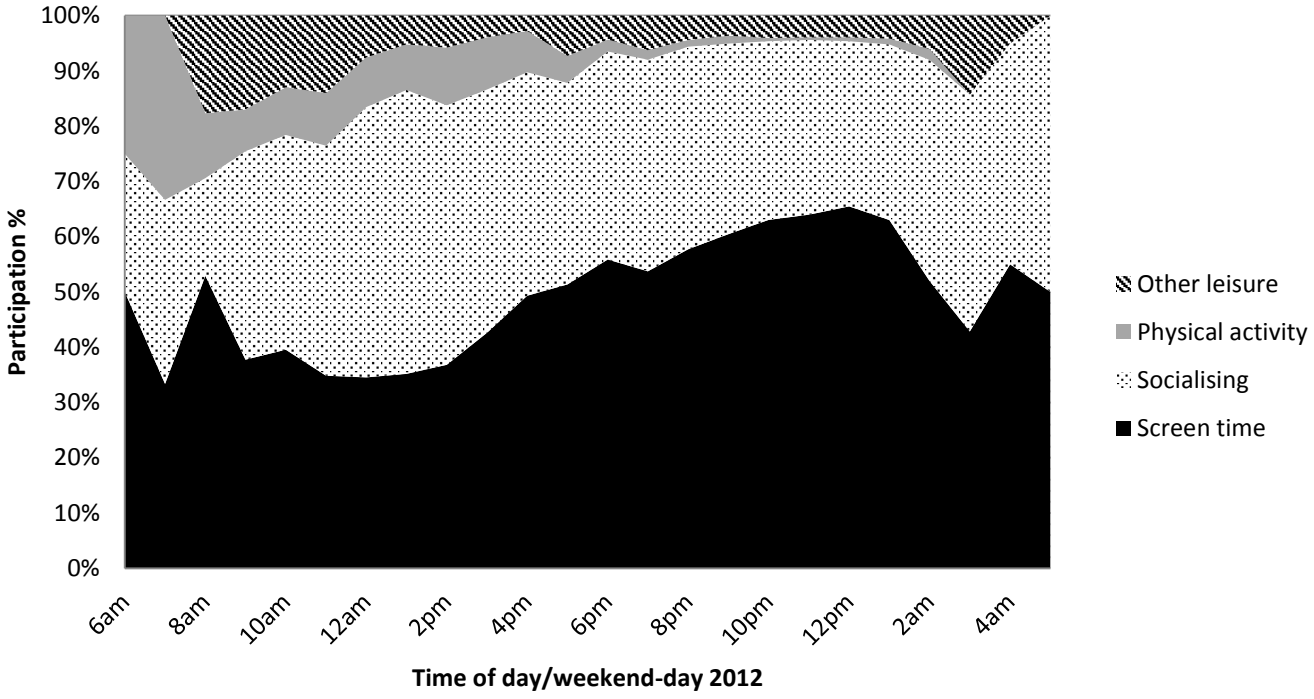


Figure 6.3.2 shows the distribution of leisure domains over a weekend-day. Screen time remained an especially popular leisure domain. It was nevertheless concentrated towards the second half of the day, between 3pm – 1am on weekend-days. However, there were two further peaks in screen time between 4am – 6am, and a smaller peak at 8am. Socializing was more evenly distributed over a weekend-day compared with a week-day. Indeed, the 'late evening' increase in week-day socializing was not evident at weekend-days. Socializing on weekend-days was more popular between 10am – 2pm.

There was a decline in physical activity on weekend-days, and it was predominantly an activity undertaken on the morning, before 9am. That said, physical activity increased between 2pm – 4pm, before a steady decline to little or no physical activity from around 7pm. Other leisure activities were also more popular in the morning on a weekend-day, and peaked between 8am – 12 am. This leisure domain remained relatively steady throughout the day, with the exception of two smaller peaks. The first was between 4pm – 6pm, and another in the early hours between 2am – 4am (Figure 6.3.2).

6.4 Sub-group analysis of screen time in 2012

The following sections report the results for each activity within the domain of screen time by the sub-groups. Table 6.4.1 shows time use of males and females in the activities that formed the screen time domain.

Table 6.4.1 Screen time activities for week-days and weekend-days in 2012: males and females

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	Males		Females		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Watching TV or DVD	WD	61 (93.8%)	108.6 (69.6)	129 (95.5%)	108.4 (69.4)	190 (95.0%)	108.4 (69.3)
	WE	57 (87.7%)	158.4 (96.1)	120 (88.8%)	159.8 (101.1)	177 (88.5%)	159.3 (99.3)
Social networking	WD	43 (66.2%)	54.6 (74.87)	99 (73.3%)	36.8 (33.6)	142 (71.0%)	42.2 (50.2)
	WE	28 (43.1%)	98.0 (109.6)	51 (37.7%)	63.2 (49.6)	79 (39.5%)	75.6 (77.6)
Internet browsing	WD	33 (50.8%)	51.6 (59.1)	64 (47.4%)	32.4 (34.7)	97 (48.5%)	39.0 (45.2)
	WE	23 (35.4%)	99.1 (103.1)	35 (25.9%)	51.6 (64.1)	58 (29.0%)	77.3 (84.8)
Video gaming	WD	36 (55.4%)	190.4 (173.2)	18 (13.3%)	84.2 (101.9)	54 (27.0%)	62.0 (64.1)
	WE	25 (38.5%)	129.0 (79.9)	6 (4.4%)	130.0 (118.7)	31 (15.5%)	129.2 (86.4)
Listening to music	WD	19 (29.2%)	19.3 (17.9)	39 (28.8%)	28.0 (59.5)	58 (29.0%)	25.1 (49.8)
	WE	11 (16.9%)	55.9 (31.5)	20 (14.8%)	57.0 (74.34)	31 (15.5%)	56.6 (61.9)
Downloading media	WD	9 (13.8%)	26.7 (40.2)	22 (16.3%)	33.0 (28.9)	31 (15.5%)	31.2 (32.0)
	WE	7 (10.8%)	47.1 (26.5)	15 (7.5%)	52.0 (74.3)	22 (11.0%)	50.5 (62.4)

Table 6.4.1 reveals that watching TV or DVDs was the most popular activity, especially on week-days. This was reflected in both the participation rates for males and females and the time they spent watching. A smaller proportion of males and females watched TV or DVDs on weekend-days, although the time spent watching TV or DVDs on weekend-days increased by approximately 50 per cent for both sexes.

Participation rates between males and females were similar in most screen time activities, with the exception of social networking and video gaming. Video gaming was far more prevalent among males: a consistent finding for week-days and weekend-days. Moreover, male video gamers spent over twice the time (3 hours and 10 minutes) gaming on week-days compared with female video gamers (1 hour and 24 minutes), although this difference diminished on weekend-days because of a decrease among males alongside an increase among females in the panel.

Males spent more time social networking than females, both on week-days (18 minutes) and on weekend-days (35 minutes). Moreover, participation rates on weekend-days were higher among males. There was a similar pattern in browsing the Internet. Males had a higher participation rate compared to females, and they tended to spend more time browsing the Internet than females. This was consistent for week-days and weekend-days (by 19 minutes and 48 minutes respectively).

As main activities, listening to music and downloading media were the least popular amongst students, both males and females, which was reflected in their

lower participation rates. Females spent more time than males engaged in both activities, and this was consistent on week-days and weekend-days (Table 6.4.1).

Table 6.4.2 reports time use data for screen time activities on week-days and weekend-days, by the students' age-related sub-groups. Table 6.4.2 shows that participation rates for watching TV or DVDs increased as age increased. Although, older students tended to spend more time than the younger students on week-days (10 minutes) and weekend-days (40 minutes), the increase in time spent watching TV or DVDs on weekend-days was found in all three age sub-groups.

Conversely social networking was more popular among younger students, and less so among the older students. Moreover, younger students spent more time social networking than older students on both week-days (16 minutes) and weekend-days (22 minutes). Listening to music and downloading media were also more popular in the younger two sub-groups, which were reflected by their higher participation rates. Although, those from the older age group who listened to music, did so, for an average of 1 hour 53 minutes on a week-day, and 2 hours and 18 minutes on a weekend-day.

Table 6.4.2 Screen time activities for week-days and weekend-days in 2012: Age groups

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	18 Years		19 Years		20 Years and over		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Watching TV or DVDs	**WD**	61 (91.0%)	108.2 (69.8)	78 (96.3%)	104.6 (72.5)	51 (98.0%)	114.6 (64.5)	190 (95.0%)	108.4 (69.3)
	WE	59 (88.0%)	145.7 (72.9)	71 (87.7%)	153.2 (95.4)	47 (90.4%)	185.7 (127.2)	177 (88.5%)	159.3 (99.3)
Social networking	**WD**	52 (77.6%)	42.1 (38.7)	60 (74.1%)	47.5 (65.3)	30 (57.7%)	31.6 (28.1)	142 (71.0%)	42.2 (50.2)
	WE	33 (49.3%)	76.8 (60.9)	34 (42.0%)	80.3 (93.0)	12 (23.1%)	58.8 (75.0)	79 (39.5%)	75.6 (77.6)
Internet browsing	**WD**	35 (52.2%)	30.7 (22.4)	38 (46.9%)	36.3 (44.5)	24 (46.2%)	55.3 (64.7)	97 (48.5%)	39.0 (45.2)
	WE	22 (32.8%)	56.1 (49.3)	22 (27.2%)	56.4 (60.7)	14 (27.5%)	96.8 (122.2)	58 (29.0%)	77.3 (84.8)
Video gaming	**WD**	20 (29.9%)	34.3 (84.8)	25 (30.9%)	15.4 (17.3)	9 (17.3%)	30.4 (23.2)	54 (27.0%)	62.0 (64.1)
	WE	13 (19.4%)	68.1 ((88.7)	12 (14.8%)	45.0 (25.6)	6 (11.5%)	55.0 (45.2)	31 (15.5%)	129.2 (86.4)
Listening to music	**WD**	18 (26.9%)	145.5 (139.5)	25 (30.9%)	177.6 (191.2)	15 (28.9%)	113.3 (103.4)	58 (29.0%)	25.1 (49.8)
	WE	10 (14.9%)	106.5 (47.7)	16 (19.8%)	140.6 (103.3)	5 (9.6%)	138.0 (94.5)	31 (15.5%)	56.6 (61.9)
Downloading media	**WD**	12 (17.9%)	35.0 (28.2)	14 (17.3%)	25.7 (27.2)	5 (9.6%)	37.2 (53.9)	31 (15.5%)	31.2 (32.0)
	WE	9 (13.4%)	40.0 (18.4)	10 (12.3%)	66.0 (90.6)	3 (5.8%)	30.0 (15.0)	22 (11.0%)	50.5 (62.4)

There were few differences in the participation rates for internet browsing between all three age-related sub-groups. However, older students tended to spend more time browsing than younger students. This was consistent on week-days (25 minutes) and weekend-days (41 minutes) (Table 6.4.2).

Table 6.4.3 reports time use data for screen time activities on week-days and weekend-days by the students' term-time residence status (PH and NPH). Watching TV or DVDs was more popular among PH students, although, NPH students tended to spend slightly more time watching, on both week-days (4 minutes) and weekend-days (10 minutes). There was a similar pattern of time use found for internet browsing and video gaming. However, participation rates for both these activities were highest among NPH students, both on week-days and weekend-days. NPH students spent more time internet browsing, especially on weekend-days (24 minutes). Moreover, NPH students spent more time video gaming than PH students by 1 hour and 7 minutes on week-days, although this decreased to 56 minutes on weekend-days.

Table 6.4.3 Screen time activities for week-days and weekend-days in 2012: term-time residence

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	Parental home (PH)		Non-parental home (NPH)		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Watching TV or DVD	**WD**	27 (96.4%)	105.1 (67.8)	163 (94.7%)	109.0 (69.3)	190 (95.0%)	108.4 (69.3)
	WE	25 (89.3%)	151.2 (76.6)	152 (88.4%)	160.7 (102.7)	177 (88.5%)	159.3 (99.3)
Social networking	**WD**	17 (60.7%)	75.4 (111.4)	125 (72.7%)	38.1 (33.6)	142 (71.0%)	42.2 (50.2)
	WE	10 (35.7%)	111.0 (148.5)	69 (40.1%)	70.4 (61.5)	79 (39.5%)	75.6 (77.6)
Internet browsing	**WD**	19 (67.9%)	38.2 (64.8)	78 (45.3%)	39.2 (39.5)	97 (48.5%)	39.0 (45.2)
	WE	7 (25.0%)	87.9 (118.9)	51 (29.7%)	75.9 (80.4)	58 (29.0%)	77.3 (84.8)
Video gaming	**WD**	10 (35.7%)	100.5 (81.6)	44 (25.6%)	167.4 (171.6)	54 (27.0%)	62.0 (64.1)
	WE	7 (25.0%)	85.7 (82.9)	24 (14.0%)	141.9 (84.9)	31 (15.5%)	129.2 (86.4)
Listening to music	**WD**	8 (28.6%)	63.8 (125.9)	50 (29.1%)	18.9 (18.4)	58 (29.0%)	25.1 (49.8)
	WE	2 (7.1%)	187.5 (222.7)	29 (16.9%)	47.6 (32.1)	31 (15.5%)	56.6 (61.9)
Downloading media	**WD**	3 (10.7%)	22.0 (9.2)	28 (16.3%)	32.1 (33.5)	31 (15.5%)	31.2 (32.0)
	WE	3 (10.7%)	30.0 (15.0)	19 (11.0%)	53.7 (66.6)	22 (11.0%)	50.5 (62.4)

PH students tended to spend more time social networking: a consistent finding on week-days (37 minutes) and weekend-days (41 minutes). However, participation rates were higher in the NPH sub-group on week-days (12.0 percentage points) and weekend-days (4.4 percentage points). Moreover, PH students spent more time listening to music. Indeed, they spent some 45 minutes more than NPH students listening to music on week-days and 2 hours and 40 minutes more on weekend-days. However, participation rates were higher amongst NPH students, especially on weekend-days (10 percentage points). Downloading media was more popular in the NPH sub-group, especially on week-days. It was PH students who tended to spend more of their time downloading media compared with NPH students: this was a consistent finding for week-days and weekend-days (Table 6.4.3).

Table 6.4.4 reports time use data for screen time activities on week-days and weekend-days by the students' family HE history (first and second generation). Second generation students tended to spend slightly more time watching TV or DVDs than first generation students: this was a consistent finding for week-days (6 minutes) and weekend-days (17 minutes). Participation rates were higher among first generation students on week-days, although the converse was found on weekend-days. There was a similar pattern found for both internet browsing and video gaming, with second generation students tending to spend more time than first generation students on both activities. However, participation rates for both activities were higher in the first generation sub-group (Table 6.4.4).

Table 6.4.4 Screen time activities for week-days and weekend-days in 2012: family HE history

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	First generation		Second generation		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Watching TV or DVD	**WD**	119 (96.7%)	106.1 (66.5)	71 (92.2%)	112.4 (74.2)	190 (95.0%)	108.4 (69.3)
	WE	107 (87.0%)	152.7 (86.0)	70 (90.9%)	169.5 (116.7)	177 (88.5%)	159.3 (99.3)
Social networking	**WD**	87 (70.7%)	42.1 (54.8)	55 (71.4%)	42.3 (42.6)	142 (71.0%)	42.2 (50.2)
	WE	49 (39.8%)	75.6 (85.4)	30 (39.0%)	75.5 (64.3)	79 (39.5%)	75.6 (77.6)
Internet browsing	**WD**	65 (52.8%)	37.9 (48.0)	32 (41.6%)	41.1 (39.3)	97 (48.5%)	39.0 (45.2)
	WE	35 (28.5%)	75.4 (83.2)	25 (32.5%)	80.2 (88.9)	58 (29.0%)	77.3 (84.8)
Video gaming	**WD**	39 (31.7%)	147.7 (159.2)	15 (19.5%)	174.0 (167.3)	54 (27.0%)	62.0 (64.1)
	WE	23 (18.7%)	110.9 (74.1)	8 (10.4%)	181.9 (102.2)	31 (15.5%)	129.2 (86.4)
Listening to music	**WD**	36 (29.3%)	27.2 (61.3)	22 (28.6%)	21.8 (21.1)	58 (29.0%)	25.1 (49.8)
	WE	20 (16.3%)	63.8 (74.4)	11 (14.3%)	43.6 (26.4)	31 (15.5%)	56.6 (61.9)
Downloading media	**WD**	18 (14.6%)	33.0 (34.6)	13 (16.9%)	28.6 (29.3)	31 (15.5%)	31.2 (32.0)
	WE	10 (8.1%)	40.5 (17.4)	12 (15.6%)	58.8 (83.8)	22 (11.0%)	50.5 (62.4)

There were few differences found between first or second generation students in their social networking. Moreover, participation rates for listening to music were similar for both sub-groups, although first generation students tended to spend more time listening to music than second generation students. The difference on week-days (4 minutes) increased on weekend-days (20 minutes). Downloading media was the least popular screen time activity for both first and second generation students. Participation was higher amongst second generation students, and they spent more time on weekend-days (18 minutes) downloading (Table 6.4.4).

6.5 Sub-group analysis of socializing in 2012

This section reports the results for the leisure domain of socializing by the sub-groups. Table 6.5.1 shows how males and females time use was patterned throughout activities that formed the socializing domain.

Chatting with friends was the most popular activity within the socializing domain. There was no difference between males and females in the time they spent chatting with friends, although participation rates were higher in the female sub-group. Females also tended to have higher participation rates than males in the following activities: shopping for pleasure; go out for a drink; go out for a meal, go on a day out, go to the cinema, theatre or a concert and dancing. These differences were consistent on both week-days and weekend-days. Males tended to have higher participation rates in drinking alcohol, going to a party and going to a society or club meeting.

Table 6.5.1 Socializing activities for week-days and weekend-days in 2012: males and females

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	Males		Females		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Chatting with friends	**WD**	53 (81.5%)	74.2 (56.1)	114 (84.4%)	78.1 (67.5)	167 (83.5%)	76.9 (64.0)
	WE	38 (58.5%)	102.6 (66.9)	85 (63.0%)	97.2 (83.6)	123 (61.5%)	98.9 (78.6)
Shopping for pleasure	**WD**	18 (27.7%)	31.3 (15.6)	66 (48.9%)	27.5 (18.1)	84 (42.0%)	28.3 (17.6)
	WE	9 (13.9%)	60.0 (41.1)	47 (34.8%)	81.4 (48.2)	56 (28.0%)	77.9 (47.5)
Drinking alcohol	**WD**	30 (46.2%)	77.2 (52.4)	48 (35.6%)	55.4 (40.7)	78 (39.0%)	63.8 (46.4)
	WE	10 (15.4%)	136.5 (124.8)	16 (11.9%)	105.9 (85.1)	26 (13.0%)	117.7 (100.9)
Going out for a drink	**WD**	17 (26.2%)	50.8 (32.0)	40 (29.6%)	38.6 (28.1)	57 (28.5%)	42.2 (29.5)
	WE	10 (15.4%)	85.5 (51.0)	23 (17.0%)	90.7 (56.4)	33 (16.5%)	89.1 (54.1)
Going out for a meal	**WD**	10 (15.4%)	23.4 (7.7)	45 (33.3%)	28.3 (21.7)	55 (27.5%)	27.4 (20.0)
	WE	15 (23.1%)	53.0 (28.3)	41 (30.4%)	64.4 (34.9)	56 (28.0%)	61.3 (33.4)
Going out to a party	**WD**	16 (24.6%)	46.9 (34.4)	15 (11.1%)	40.8 (29.8)	31 (15.5%)	43.9 (31.9)
	WE	4 (6.2%)	146.3 (143.0)	4 (3.0%)	82.5 (49.7)	8 (4.0%)	114.4 (104.8)
Drinking tea, coffee or juice	**WD**	9 (13.9%)	26.0 (28.8)	51 (37.8%)	15.6 (12.9)	60 (30.0%	17.2 (16.3)
	WE	7 (10.8%)	32.1 (22.0)	24 (17.8%)	35.0 (31.2)	31 (15.5%)	34.4 (29.0)
Dancing	**WD**	11 (16.9%)	55.6 (61.0)	20 (14.8%)	51.9 (53.4)	31 (15.5%)	53.2 (55.2)
	WE	2 (3.1%)	105.0 (127.3)	7 (5.2%)	96.4 (83.9)	9 (4.5%)	98.3 (85.5)
Day out	**WD**	8 (12.3%)	48.8 (39.3)	32 (23.7%)	40.5 (26.5)	40 (20.0%)	42.2 (29.1)
	WE	1 (1.5%)	90.0 (0.0)	7 (5.2%)	77.1 (51.5)	8 (4.0%)	78.8 (47.9)
Society or club meeting	**WD**	8 (12.3%)	42.0 (20.5)	25 (18.5%)	37.9 (28.4)	33 (16.5%)	38.9 (26.5)
	WE	6 (9.2%)	157.5 (179.4)	21 (15.6%)	115.0 (52.5)	27 (13.5%)	124.4 (92.9)
Cinema, theatre or concert	**WD**	6 (9.2%)	61.0 (33.0)	23 (17.0%)	36.3 (15.2)	29 (14.5%)	41.4 (21.9)
	WE	5 (7.7%)	78.0 (12.5)	16 (11.9%)	95.6 (23.8)	21 (10.5%)	91.4 (22.7)

Males tended to spend more time on average than females drinking alcohol on week-days (22 minutes) and weekend-days (31 minutes). There was a similar finding for attending a society or club meeting, and males spent 1 hour and 4 minutes more than females on weekend-days. Although, fewer males went out for a meal, went out dancing, or went for a day out, those who did tended to spend more time than females in those same activities. This was a consistent finding for both week-days and weekend-days (Table 6.5.1).

Table 6.5.2 reports time use data for socializing activities on week-days and weekend-days, by the students' age-related sub-groups. Students in the 18 years age group participated more on week-days in: chatting with friends; shopping for pleasure; going out for a drink or a meal; attending society meetings; going out for the day and going to the cinema, theatre or a concert than either of the other two sub-groups. There was a similar finding on weekend-days for this youngest sub-group in the same activities, although the 19 years sub-group participated more in: drinking alcohol; going out for a meal; going to a party and going to the cinema, theatre or a concert. The youngest students (18 years) spent more time: chatting with friends; going to parties; attending society meetings on week-days and weekend-days than either of the two older sub-groups by a total maximum of 4 hours and 40 (Table 6.5.2).

Table 6.5.2 Socializing activities for week-days and weekend-days in 2012: age groups

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	18 years		19 years		20 years and over		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Chatting with friends	**WD**	60 (89.6%)	86.1 (64.2)	71 (87.7%)	76.9 (68.9)	36 (69.2%)	61.3 (50.6)	167 (83.5%)	76.9 (64.0)
	WE	48 (71.6%)	110.3 (89.6)	53 (65.4%)	95.3 (70.4)	22 (42.3%)	82.5 (70.8)	123 (61.5%)	98.9 (78.6)
Shopping for pleasure	**WD**	31 (46.3%)	25.7 (13.7)	33 (40.7%)	27.5 (14.4)	20 (38.5%)	33.6 (25.7)	84 (42.0%)	28.3 (17.6)
	WE	21 (31.3%)	75.7 (39.3)	23 (28.4%)	80.2 (51.7)	12 (23.1%)	77.5 (55.7)	56 (28.0%)	77.9 (47.5)
Drinking alcohol	**WD**	31 (46.3%)	56.7 (43.8)	38 (46.9%)	72.5 (49.4)	9 (17.3%)	51.3 (39.4)	78 (39.0%)	63.8 (46.4)
	WE	10 (14.9%)	123.0 (116.6)	13 (16.1%)	98.1 (73.4)	3 (5.8%)	185.0 (156.1)	26 (13.0%)	117.7 (100.9)
Going out for a drink	**WD**	21 (31.3%)	34.0 (21.9)	23 (28.4%)	42.3 (29.3)	13 (25.0%)	55.4 (37.3)	57 (28.5%)	42.2 (29.5)
	WE	13 (19.4%)	78.5 (52.7)	14 (17.3%)	100.7 (61.0)	6 (11.5%)	85.0 (41.0)	33 (16.5%)	89.1 (54.1)
Going out for a meal	**WD**	20 (29.9%)	27.3 (14.2)	22 (27.2%)	30.8 (26.5)	13 (25.0%)	21.7 (13.8)	55 (27.5%)	27.4 (20.0)
	WE	19 (28.4%)	63.2 (29.4)	24 (29.6%)	66.3 (40.5)	13 (25.0%)	49.6 (21.6)	56 (28.0%)	61.3 (33.4)
Going out to a party	**WD**	14 (20.9%)	56.1 (35.4)	12 (14.8%)	34.0 (28.6)	5 (9.6%)	33.6 (18.3)	31 (15.5%)	43.9 (31.9)
	WE	3 (4.5%)	175.0 (160.4)	3 (3.7%)	70.0 (52.7)	2 (3.9%)	90.0 (42.4)	8 (4.0%)	114.4 (104.8)
Drinking tea, coffee or juice	**WD**	18 (26.9%)	18.3 (21.6)	20 (24.7%)	16.2 (15.0)	22 (42.3%)	17.2 (12.9)	60 (30.0%	17.2 (16.3)
	WE	11 (16.4%)	27.3 (17.5)	9 (11.1%)	35.0 (34.4)	11 (21.2%)	40.9 (34.3)	31 (15.5%)	34.4 (29.0)
Dancing	**WD**	7 (10.5%)	67.7 (76.3)	17 (21.0%)	48.4 (51.5)	7 (13.5%)	50.6 (44.9)	31 (15.5%)	53.2 (55.2)
	WE	3 (4.5%)	125.0 (62.4)	5 (6.2%)	93.0 (106.8)	1 (1.9%)	45.0 (0.0)	9 (4.5%)	98.3 (85.5)
Day out	**WD**	14 (20.9%)	51.9 (32.7)	23 (28.4%)	39.1 (26.0)	3 (5.8%)	20.0 (24.2)	40 (20.0%)	42.2 (29.1)
	WE	4 (6.0%)	71.3 (46.4)	4 (4.9%)	86.3 (55.3)	-	-	8 (4.0%)	78.8 (47.9)
Society or club meeting	**WD**	13 (19.4%)	30.0 (15.7)	15 (18.5%)	44.0 (29.8)	5 (9.6%)	46.8 (36.3)	33 (16.5%)	38.9 (26.5)
	WE	8 (11.9%)	84.4 (58.3)	11 (13.6%)	115.9 (50.7)	8 (15.4%)	176.3 (141.3)	27 (13.5%)	124.4 (92.9)
Cinema, theatre or concert	**WD**	10 (14.9%)	40.2 (15.8)	12 (14.8%)	44.5 (27.8)	7 (13.5%)	37.7 (20.1)	29 (14.5%)	41.4 (21.9)
	WE	6 (9.0%)	95.0 (29.5)	11 (13.6%)	83.2 (14.0)	4 (7.7%)	108.8 (25.6)	21 (10.5%)	91.4 (22.7)

Students in the 20 years and over age group participated less in the majority of socializing activities compared with the younger two sub-groups on both week-days and weekend-days, with the exception of going out for the day on weekend-days. Moreover, on week-days, the oldest sub-group spent less time: chatting with friends; drinking alcohol; going out for a meal; going to a party; dancing; attending society meetings and going to the cinema, theatre or a concert by a maximum of 2 hours and 16 minutes, compared with younger students (Table 6.5.2).

Table 6.5.3 reports time use data for socializing activities on week-days and weekend-days, by the students' term-time residence status (PH and NPH).

NPH students were found to have higher participation rates for chatting with friends compared with PH students. Furthermore, NPH students tended to spend more time chatting with friends compared with PH students: this was a consistent finding for week-days (22 minutes) and weekend-days (13 minutes). Indeed, NPH participation rates were higher on week-days and weekend-days for: shopping for pleasure; drinking alcohol; going out for the day; and attending a society or club meeting. NPH participation was higher solely on week-days for: going out for a meal; going out for a drink; going out to a party and dancing. PH students' participation rates were only higher on weekend-days for: going out for a meal; going out for a drink; dancing and going to the cinema, theatre or a concert (Table 6.5.3).

Table 6.5.3 Socializing activities for week-days and weekend-days in 2012: term-time residence

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	Parental home (PH)		Non-parental home (NPH)		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Chatting with friends	**WD**	21 (75.0%)	58.0 (31.5)	146 (84.9%)	79.6 (67.0)	167 (83.5%)	76.9 (64.0)
	WE	9 (32.1%)	86.7 (58.5)	114 (66.3%)	99.9 (80.1)	123 (61.5%)	98.9 (78.6)
Shopping for pleasure	**WD**	10 (35.7%)	27.0 (19.2)	74 (43.0%)	28.5 (17.5)	84 (42.0%)	28.3 (17.6)
	WE	7 (25.0%)	75.0 (68.2)	49 (28.5%)	78.4 (44.7)	56 (28.0%)	77.9 (47.5)
Drinking alcohol	**WD**	7 (25.0%)	90.9 (57.5)	71 (41.3%)	61.1 (44.8)	78 (39.0%)	63.8 (46.4)
	WE	1 (3.6%)	150.0 (0.0)	25 (14.5%)	116.4 (102.8)	26 (13.0%)	117.7 (100.9)
Going out for a drink	**WD**	6 (21.4%)	45.0 (35.9)	51 (29.7%)	41.9 (29.1)	57 (28.5%)	42.2 (29.5)
	WE	5 (17.9%)	93.0 (58.5)	28 (16.3%)	88.4 (54.4)	33 (16.5%)	89.1 (54.1)
Going out for a meal	**WD**	7 (25.0%)	24.0 (12.0)	48 (27.9%)	27.9 (20.9)	55 (27.5%)	27.4 (20.0)
	WE	11 (39.3%)	54.5 (20.4)	45 (26.2%)	63.0 (35.8)	56 (28.0%)	61.3 (33.4)
Going out to a party	**WD**	2 (7.1%)	39.0 (29.7)	29 (16.9%)	44.3 (32.5)	31 (15.5%)	43.9 (31.9)
	WE	-	-	8 (4.7%)	114.4 (104.8)	8 (4.0%)	114.4 (104.8)
Drinking tea, coffee or juice	**WD**	11 (39.3%)	20.7 (18.5)	49 (28.5%)	16.4 (15.9)	60 (30.0%	17.2 (16.3)
	WE	2 (9.1%)	15.0 (0.0)	29 (21.6%)	35.7 (29.6)	31 (15.5%)	34.4 (29.0)
Dancing	**WD**	3 (10.7%)	18.0 (20.8)	28 (16.3%)	57.0 (56.6)	31 (15.5%)	53.2 (55.2)
	WE	2 (7.1%)	142.5 (159.1)	7 (4.1%)	85.7 (68.6)	9 (4.5%)	98.3 (85.5)
Day out	**WD**	5 (17.9%)	8.4 (3.3)	35 (20.4%)	47.0 (27.9)	40 (20.0%)	42.2 (29.1)
	WE	3 (10.7%)	85.0 (60.6)	5 (2.9%)	75.0 (46.2)	8 (4.0%)	78.8 (47.9)
Society or club meeting	**WD**	2 (7.1%)	60.0 (67.9)	31 (18.0%)	37.5 (23.7)	33 (16.5%)	38.9 (26.5)
	WE	3 (10.7%)	80.0 (60.6)	24 (14.0%)	130.0 (95.7)	27 (13.5%)	124.4 (92.9)
Cinema, theatre or concert	**WD**	9 (32.1%)	43.3 (22.8)	20 (11.6%)	40.5 (22.0)	29 (14.5%)	41.4 (21.9)
	WE	2 (7.1%)	90.0 (21.2)	19 (11.1%)	91.6 (23.4)	21 (10.5%)	91.4 (22.7)

Moreover, NPH students tended to spend more time than PH students on week-days: shopping for pleasure; going out for a meal; going to a party; dancing and attending society or club meetings by a total of 1 hour and 51 minutes. This difference increased on weekend-days to some 3 hours and 41 minutes, with the addition of: going on a day out and; going to the cinema and attending society or club meetings. Indeed, the only activities in which PH students tended to spend more time than NPH students were: drinking alcohol; going out for a drink (week-days and weekend-days; 1 hour and 12 minutes); going out to a party; dancing (weekend-days; 1 hour and 7 minutes) and going on a day out on week-days for some 23 minutes (Table 6.5.3).

Table 6.5.4 reports time use data for screen time activities on week-days and weekend-days by the students' family HE history (first or second generation). Second generation students tended to have higher participation rates than first generation students on both week-days and weekend-days for: drinking alcohol; going out for a drink and dancing. Moreover, they were more likely to: go out for a meal; go to a party; go out for the day and attend society or club meetings on week-days, compared with first generation students. First generation students were more likely to: shop for pleasure and go to the cinema, theatre or a concert, on week-days and weekend-days than second generation students. Moreover, they were more likely to go out for a meal or a party on weekend-days compared with second generation students.

Table 6.5.4 Socializing activities for week-days and weekend-days in 2012: students' family HE history

Activity	Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)	First generation		Second generation		All	
		Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)	Participation rate N (%)	Participation mean (SD)
Chatting with friends	**WD**	103 (83.7%)	78.5 (68.1)	64 (83.1%)	74.2 (57.0)	167 (83.5%)	76.9 (64.0)
	WE	72 (58.5%)	101.3 (70.7)	51 (66.2%)	95.6 (89.1)	123 (61.5%)	98.9 (78.6)
Shopping for pleasure	**WD**	55 (44.7%)	30.3 (20.1)	29 (37.7%)	24.4 (10.6)	84 (42.0%)	28.3 (17.6)
	WE	36 (29.3%)	77.5 (53.5)	20 (26.0%)	78.8 (35.4)	56 (28.0%)	77.9 (47.5)
Drinking alcohol	**WD**	44 (35.8%)	65.7 (47.8)	34 (44.2%)	61.2 (45.2)	78 (39.0%)	63.8 (46.4)
	WE	14 (11.4%)	144.6 (125.2)	12 (15.6%)	86.3 (51.2)	26 (13.0%)	117.7 (100.9)
Going out for a drink	**WD**	34 (27.6%)	43.8 (26.7)	23 (29.9%)	39.9 (33.9)	57 (28.5%)	42.2 (29.5)
	WE	19 (15.5%)	107.4 (54.8)	14 (18.2%)	64.3 (43.4)	33 (16.5%)	89.1 (54.1)
Going out for a meal	**WD**	30 (24.4%)	32.2 (24.4)	25 (32.5%)	21.6 (10.7)	55 (27.5%)	27.4 (20.0)
	WE	35 (28.5%)	63.4 (32.6)	21 (27.3%)	57.9 (35.3)	56 (28.0%)	61.3 (33.4)
Going out to a party	**WD**	16 (13.0%)	37.9 (27.4)	15 (19.5%)	50.4 (35.8)	31 (15.5%)	43.9 (31.9)
	WE	5 (4.1%)	90.0 (28.1)	3 (3.9%)	155.0 (181.5)	8 (4.0%)	114.4 (104.8)
Drinking tea, coffee or juice	**WD**	40 (32.5%)	18.8 (18.6)	20 (26.0%)	14.1 (10.0)	60 (30.0%	17.2 (16.3)
	WE	23 (18.7%)	27.4 (16.1)	8 (10.4%)	54.4 (46.7)	31 (15.5%)	34.4 (29.0)
Dancing	**WD**	17 (13.8%)	46.6 (43.2)	14 (18.2%)	61.3 (67.8)	31 (15.5%)	53.2 (55.2)
	WE	7 (5.7%)	117.9 (87.6)	2 (2.6%)	30.0 (21.2)	9 (4.5%)	98.3 (85.5)
Day out	**WD**	22 (17.9%)	43.9 (30.9)	18 (23.4%)	40.0 (27.5)	40 (20.0%)	42.2 (29.1)
	WE	4 (3.3%)	60.0 (61.2)	4 (5.2%)	97.5 (26.0)	8 (4.0%)	78.8 (47.9)
Society or club meeting	**WD**	14 (11.4%)	42.4 (31.5)	19 (24.7%)	36.3 (22.6)	33 (16.5%)	38.9 (26.5)
	WE	18 (14.6%)	110.0 (55.4)	9 (11.7%)	153.3 (141.9)	27 (13.5%)	124.4 (92.9)
Cinema, theatre or concert	**WD**	19 (15.5%)	42.3 (23.3)	10 (13.0%)	39.6 (20.0)	29 (14.5%)	41.4 (21.9)
	WE	13 (10.6%)	87.7 (21.9)	8 (10.4%)	97.5 (24.1)	21 (10.5%)	91.4 (22.7)

In terms of the actual time students spent in each activity, first generation students tended to spend more time in all socializing activities with the exception of: attending society or club meetings (week-days and weekend-days; 1 hour and 18 minutes), and dancing; going out for the day and going to the cinema, theatre or concert (weekend-days; 1 hour and 31 minutes), compared with second generation students (Table 6.5.4).

6.6 Sub-group analysis of physical activity in 2012

This section reports the time use data for physical activity. For clarity of reporting, students' sex, age, term-time residence status and family HE history have been condensed into one table. Table 6.6.1 shows students' patterns of time use on physical activity.

Table 6.6.1 Physical activity on week-days and weekend-days in 2012: sex, age group, term-time residence and family HE history

	Week-days		Weekend-days	
Sub-group	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**
All	126 (63.0%)	49.0 (41.7)	65 (32.5%)	56.5 (39.0)
Males	49 (75.4%)	65.1 (47.9)	27 (41.5%)	62.8 (43.8)
Females	77 (57.0%)	38.6 (33.73)	38 (28.2%)	52.1 (35.0)
18 years	42 (62.7%)	47.9 (38.9)	29 (43.3%)	49.4 (35.0)
19 years	57 (70.4%)	48.0 (41.1)	29 (35.8%)	56.9 (30.1)
20 years and over	27 (51.9%)	52.7 (48.1)	12 (23.1%)	70.0 (60.5)
Parental home (PH)	16 (57.1%)	40.9 (28.5)	7 (25.0%)	62.1 (35.1)
Non-parental home (NPH)	110 (64.0%)	50.1 (43.3)	58 (33.7%)	55.9 (39.6)
First generation	54 (58.1%)	50.6 (47.4)	26 (28.0%)	85.4 (69.3)
Second generation	31 (49.2%)	51.2 (37.2)	12 (19.0%)	67.5 (45.0)

Physical activity was more popular among males than females: this was a consistent finding for both week-days and weekend-days. Moreover, males tended to spend more time doing physical activity than females, although the difference diminished from 27 minutes on week-days, to 11 minutes on weekend-days. In terms of age, participation rates were lowest in the 20 years and older sub-group. These age patterns were consistent for week-days and weekend-days. Participation was higher among NPH students on week-days and weekend-days. However, while NPH students tended to spend slightly more time doing physical activity than PH students on week-days (9 minutes), PH students spent more time doing physical activity on weekend-days (6 minutes). In terms of the students' family HE history, participation was higher amongst first generation students: a consistent finding on week-days and weekend-days. However, while both sub-groups spent the same amount of time doing physical activity on week-days, first generation students spent more time than second generation students on weekend-days (Table 6.6.1).

Following analysis of the activities that comprised the other leisure domain (reading for pleasure, hobbies and religious worship), it was judged that these data would not be presented in the findings, but are shown as a set of tables in Appendix 11. The justification for this was they were not activities in which many of the students undertook, thereby, were not a key feature of students leisure time use.

6.7 Summary of patterns of time use in leisure time in 2012

Students evidently spent a large proportion of their time engaged in leisure activities, some (6 hours and 29 minutes) of a week-day, and (7 hours and 23 minutes) on a weekend-day was spent on leisure. In terms of the four domains of leisure, screen time was the most popular leisure activity, followed by socializing, physical activity and other leisure. This was reflected in the participation rate, and the time students spent doing activities. One of the more distinct findings was the amount of variability in the time students spent on their leisure activities. This was the case for all activities, and in all sub-groups, reflected in the large standard deviations reported in their time use data.

In terms of the temporal aspect of leisure, there were some distinctions between week-days and weekend-days. For example, students' screen time activities on week-days were focussed around two parts of the day, early to midmorning, and again in the evening. This changed on weekend-days, with screen time being concentrated more towards the evening. Week-day socializing was more prevalent in the evenings, whereas on weekend-days students tended to socialise more during the day. Physical activity was evidently more popular on week-days compared with weekend-days, and continued for a longer part of the day. Other leisure was concentrated towards the mornings and late evenings, with little participation during the main part of the day.

Differences between males and females were relatively minimal in their screen time activities, with the exception of video gaming and social networking (mainly Facebook). Males spent more time video gaming and social networking than females. Moreover, they participated in both more than females generally. The

data showed watching TV and DVDs was the most popular leisure activity by far, and this was consistent for both sexes. There were few differences between males and females in their socializing, which was the second most popular way to spend leisure time. However, males tended to spend more time drinking alcohol than females, and drank in greater numbers. Students and their relationship with alcohol will be the focus of Chapter 9. Females preferred shopping for pleasure, going out for a meal and going to the cinema, theatre or a concert than males. There was no difference between males and females in the time they spent chatting with their friends, which was the single most popular way of socializing. Physical activity was more pervasive among males than females, and males tended to spend more time doing physical activity than females on both week-days and weekend-days. However, there were less distinct patterns found in males and females time use across the domain of other leisure.

Younger students favoured social networking, listening to music and downloading media compared with older students. Students in the oldest sub-group socialized less than students in either of the two younger sub-groups, with the exception of 'going out for the day' on weekend-days. There was a similar finding for physical activity in terms of lower participation amongst older students compared with younger students. However, older students tended to spend longer exercising than the younger students.

Students who lived in their parental home (PH), tended to participate more in screen time-based activities, although it was the students 'living away' NPH who tended to spend more time actually watching TV and DVDs, using the internet and video gaming. Perhaps not surprisingly, PH students spent more time social

networking on both week-days and weekend-days. Moreover, PH students spent more time than MPH students listening to music and downloading media. NPH students tended to participate more in social activities than PH students. Moreover, they tended to spend longer in these activities, especially on week-days. However, PH students spent more time: drinking alcohol; going out for a drink; going to a party; dancing and going out for the day, specifically on weekend-days. Physical activity was more popular among NPH students. Indeed, NPH students spent longer doing physical activity than PH students, with the exception of weekend-days.

There were few differences between first and second generation students in their patterns of time use in screen time-based activities, with the exception of watching TV and DVDs, and internet browsing. These were both more prevalent amongst first generation students, although second generation students spent more time engaged in them. In terms of their socializing, first generation students spent more time than second generation students in all the activities, with the exception of society meetings, going out for the day, dancing and going to the cinema. However, second generation students participated more in activities in which alcohol might be present, especially on week-days.

The following chapter presents an analysis of the features and patterns of leisure time use amongst the same sample of university students in their second year at university in 2013.

Chapter 7

Students' leisure time in 2013: continuity alongside change

7.1 Introduction

This chapter identifies the main changes in the patterns of leisure time use among the panel of students in 2013, during the second year of their degree program. First, the chapter presents the findings in terms of the entire panel, and makes comparisons with their previous leisure time use in the four leisure domains in 2012.

7.2 Students' leisure time in 2013: week-days and weekend-days

Overall, the panel spent less time in 2013 on leisure activities compared with 2012. Indeed, total mean leisure time diminished by 15 minutes on week-days and 31 minutes on weekend-days. Nonetheless, leisure still accounted for 27.4 per cent (6 hours and 34 minutes) of all time use on week-days, and 30.7 per cent (7 hours and 22 minutes) on weekend-days in 2013. Moreover, participation rates remained consistent at 100 per cent: all students used time on leisure in 2013 as in 2012.

Notwithstanding an overall decrease in leisure time, there were specific changes in both participation rate and the time students spent on activities in each of the four leisure domains since 2012. Table 7.2.1 compares students' leisure time use in 2012 and 2013 to illustrate these patterns,

which were most evident in socializing, physical activity and screen time. There were relatively few changes in the category 'other' leisure activities.

Table 7.2.1 Students' leisure time use in 2012 and 2013: week-day and weekend-day

		2012 (N = 200)		2013 (N = 156)	
Leisure domain	**Week-day or Weekend-day (WD/WE)**	**Total mean minutes***	**Participation rate (%)**	**Total mean minutes***	**Participation rate (%)**
Screen time	**WD**	180.7	(100.0)	180.6	(99.4)
	WE	227.6	(96.0)	243.4	(96.2)
Socializing	**WD**	156.4	(97.0)	147.4	(94.9)
	WE	168.4	(84.5)	138.0	(80.1)
Physical activity	**WD**	30.8	(63.0)	27.7	(54.5)
	WE	18.4	(32.5)	19.4	(24.4)
Other leisure	**WD**	15.5	(42.5)	14.8	(38.5)
	WE	23.6	(30.0)	23.7	(28.9)

*** per person, per day**

In overall terms, screen time use was more resistant to change than either socializing or physical activity. For the former, participation rates remained high on both week-days and weekend-days in 2013 and showed a similar pattern with slightly lower participation rates on a weekend-day. The main shift in screen time use in 2013 was in terms of a 15 minute increase in mean minutes on a weekend-day (227.6 minutes to 243.4 minutes). Time spent socializing in 2013, on the other hand, showed small decreases in participation rate and mean minutes on both week-days and weekend-days (9 minutes on week-days and 30 minutes on weekend-days). The pattern of change in physical activity was slightly different. Participation rates in

physical activity diminished on week-days (8.5 percentage points) and weekend-days (8.1 percentage points). However, the total mean minutes of physical activity showed relatively little change in 2013. This suggests that a smaller proportion of the panel were spending, on average, more time on this domain. The following sections report more detailed results for each of the four leisure domains by various sub-groups.

7.3 Screen time in 2013: sub-group analysis

Table 7.3.1 and Table 7.3.2 show time use data for screen time activities by sex in 2012 and 2013 on week-days and weekend-days respectively. For the panel as a whole, participation rates in all screen time activities – with the exception of watching TV or DVDs – decreased on week-days in 2013. In terms of mean time spent on screen time activities, there were increases in watching TV and DVDs, internet browsing, video gaming 2013. Time spent social networking and downloading media decreased.

Declining participation was more prominent as a pattern among females than males, however, which was particularly evident in social networking. Video gaming among women had become a minority activity, declining from 13.3 per cent to 8.6 percent. However, mean time use had increased from 33.7 to 47.3 minutes per week-day, illustrating how this activity had developed among a small committed proportion of the panel. For males and females, participation in watching TV or DVDs increased in 2013, more so among males, alongside mean time use to a level that was very similar across the sexes. As with females, the largest decline in participation rate

among men was in social networking. The participation rate for video gaming on the other hand increased in 2013.

With the exception of watching TV and DVDs which increased, for the panel as a whole participation rates in most other screen time activities diminished on weekend-days. There were some notable patterns across males and females, however. Mean time spent watching TV and DVDs among males on weekend-days had increased by 1 hour and 15 minutes in 2013 compared to 6 minutes among females. The mean time males spent on video gaming and downloading media also increased in 2013 by 19 minutes and 5 minutes respectively. The participation rate for social networking among females on a weekend day decreased in 2013, however, the mean time spent increased.

Table 7.3.1 Comparisons of patterns of week-day screen time in 2012 and 2013: males and females

Week-day Activity	Males 2012	Males 2013	Females 2012	Females 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Watching TV or DVD	108.6 (69.6) 61 (93.8%)	123.9 (75.9) 50 (98.0%)	108.4 (69.4) 129 (95.5%)	122.3 (89.6) 101 (96.2%)	108.4 (69.3) 190 (95.0%)	122.8 (85.0) 151 (96.8%)
Social networking	54.6 (74.87) 43 (66.2%)	33.5 (31.5) 24 (47.1%)	36.8 (33.6) 99 (73.3%)	31.4 (32.0) 48 (45.7%)	42.2 (50.2) 142 (71.0%)	32.1 (31.6) 72 (47.7%)
Internet browsing	51.6 (59.1) 33 (50.8%)	49.8 (51.7) 26 (51.0%)	32.4 (34.7) 64 (47.4%)	38.2 (50.1) 41 (39.0%)	39.0 (45.2) 97 (48.5%)	42.7 (50.6) 67 (44.4%)
Video gaming	76.2 (69.3) 36 (55.4%)	87.1 (80.9) 31 (61.0%)	33.7 (40.8) 18 (13.3%)	47.3 (73.8) 9 (8.6%)	62.0 (64.1) 54 (27.0%)	78.2 (80.2) 40 (26.5%)
Listening to music	19.3 (17.9) 19 (29.2%)	32.0 (34.7) 15 (29.4%)	28.0 (59.5) 39 (28.8%)	20.9 (17.8) 23 (21.9%)	25.1 (49.8) 58 (29.0%)	25.3 (26.0) 38 (25.2%)
Downloading media	26.7 (40.2) 9 (13.8%)	20.6 (11.4) 7 (13.7%)	33.0 (28.9) 22 (16.3%)	31.7 (60.3) 7 (6.6%)	31.2 (32.0) 31 (15.5%)	26.1 (42.1) 14 (9.3%)

Table 7.3.2 Comparisons of patterns of weekend-day screen time in 2012 and 2013: males and females

Weekend-day Activity	Males 2012	Males 2013	Females 2012	Females 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Watching TV or DVD	158.4 (96.1) 57 (87.7%)	233.5 (153.4) 46 (90.2%)	159.8 (101.1) 120 (88.8%)	165.9 (104.4) 98 (93.3%)	159.3 (99.3) 177 (88.5%)	187.5 (125.7) 144 (95.4%)
Social networking	98.0 (109.6) 28 (43.1%)	50.4 (38.0) 14 (27.5%)	63.2 (49.6) 51 (37.7%)	81.9 (105.4) 28 (26.6%)	75.6 (77.6) 79 (39.5%)	71.4 (89.4) 42 (27.8%)
Internet browsing	99.1 (103.1) 23 (35.4%)	83.3 (61.9) 9 (17.6%)	63.0 (68.0) 35 (25.9%)	57.7 (43.8) 26 (24.7%)	77.3 (84.8) 58 (29.0%)	64.3 (49.4) 35 (23.2%)
Video gaming	129.0 (79.9) 25 (38.5%)	147.5 (101.9) 24 (47.1%)	130.0 (118.7) 6 (4.4%)	70.7 (55.3) 7 (6.6%)	129.2 (86.4) 31 (15.5%)	130.2 (98.2) 31 (20.5%)
Listening to music	55.9 (31.5) 11 (16.9%)	51.4 (35.6) 7 (13.7%)	57.0 (74.34) 20 (14.8%)	49.6 (34.3) 13 (12.4%)	56.6 (61.9) 31 (15.5%)	50.3 (33.8) 20 (13.3%)
Downloading media	47.1 (26.5) 7 (10.8%)	52.5 (10.6) 2 (3.9%)	52.0 (74.3) 15 (7.5%)	142.5 (81.5) 4 (3.8%)	50.5 (62.4) 22 (11.0%)	112.5 (81.5) 6 (4.0%)

Table 7.3.3 and Table 7.3.4 compare patterns of screen time use by age group in 2012 and 2013 for week-days and weekend-days respectively. Participation rates for watching TV or DVDs increased as age increased. Although, older students tended to watch for longer than the younger students on week-days (10 minutes) and weekend-days (40 minutes), the increase in time spent watching on weekend-days was found in all three age sub-groups.

There was a converse age-related pattern found for social networking, which was more popular amongst younger students, and less so among the older students. Moreover, younger students spent more time social networking than older students on both week-days (16 minutes) and weekend-days (22 minutes). Listening to music and downloading media was also more popular in the younger two sub-groups, which was reflected in participation rates.

There was no difference in participation rates for internet browsing between all three age-related sub-groups. However, older students tended to spend more time browsing than younger students. This was consistent on week-days (25 minutes) and weekend-days (41 minutes) (Table 7.3.3 and Table 7.3.4).

Table 7.3.3 Comparisons of patterns of week-day screen time in 2012 and 2013: age groups

Week-day Activity	19 years 2012	19 years 2013	20 years 2012	20 years 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Watching TV or DVD	104.6 (72.5) 78 (96.3%)	132.8 (95.0) 54 (98.2%)	114.6 (64.5) 51 (98.1%)	117.3 (78.9) 97 (96.0%)	108.4 (69.3) 190 (95.0%)	122.8 (85.0) 151 (100.0%)
Social networking	47.5 (65.3) 60 (74.1%)	32.1 (31.9) 29 (52.7%)	31.6 (28.1) 30 (57.7%)	32.1 (31.8) 43 (42.6%)	42.2 (50.2) 142 (71.0%)	32.1 (31.6) 72 (47.7%)
Internet browsing	36.3 (44.5) 38 (46.9%)	39.8 (44.3) 27 (49.1%)	55.3 (64.7) 24 (46.2%)	44.7 (54.9) 40 (39.6%)	39.0 (45.2) 97 (48.5%)	42.7 (50.6) 67 (44.4%)
Video gaming	71.0 (76.5) 25 (30.9%)	52.5 (41.3) 16 (29.1%)	45.3 (41.4) 9 (17.3%)	95.3 (95.0) 24 (23.8%)	62.0 (64.1) 54 (27.0%)	78.2 (80.2) 40 (26.5%)
Listening to music	177.6 (191.2) 25 (30.9%)	24.0 (17.8) 16 (29.1%)	113.3 (103.4) 9 (17.3%)	26.2 (31.0) 22 (21.8%)	25.1 (49.8) 58 (29.0%)	25.3 (26.0) 38 (25.2%)
Downloading media	25.7 (27.2) 14 (17.3%)	42.0 (56.5) 7 (12.7%)	37.2 (53.9) 5 (9.6%)	10.3 (7.5) 7 (6.9%)	31.2 (32.0) 31 (15.5%)	26.1 (42.1) 14 (9.3%)

Table 7.3.4 Comparisons of patterns of weekend-day screen time in 2012 and 2013: age groups

Weekend-day Activity	19 years 2012	19 years 2013	20 years 2012	20 years 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Watching TV or DVD	153.2 (95.4) 71 (87.7%)	182.4 (128.0) 50 (90.9%)	185.7 (127.2) 47 (90.4%)	190.2 (125.0) 94 (93.1%)	159.3 (99.3) 177 (88.5%)	187.5 (125.7) 144 (95.4%)
Social networking	80.3 (93.0) 34 (42.0%)	81.3 (115.0) 19 (34.6%)	58.8 (75.0) 12 (23.1%)	63.3 (62.7) 23 (22.8%)	75.6 (77.6) 79 (39.5%)	71.4 (89.4) 42 (27.8%)
Internet browsing	68.9 (74.4) 22 (27.2%)	43.8 (37.5) 12 (21.8%)	117.9 (126.2) 14 (26.9%)	75.0 (52.2) 23 (22.8%)	77.3 (84.8) 58 (29.0%)	64.3 (49.4) 35 (23.2%)
Video gaming	80.3 (93.0) 34 (42.0%)	123.8 (59.3) 8 (14.6%)	58.8 (75.0) 12 (23.1%)	132.4 (109.5) 23 (22.8%)	129.2 (86.4) 31 (15.5%)	130.2 (98.2) 31 (20.5%)
Listening to music	45.0 (25.6) 12 14.8%)	55.7 (32.1) 7 (12.7%)	55.0 (45.2) 6 (11.5%)	47.3 (35.6) 13 (12.9%)	56.6 (61.9) 31 (15.5%)	50.3 (33.8) 20 (13.3%)
Downloading media	66.0 (90.6) 10 (12.3%)	125.0 (96.4) 3 (5.5%)	30.0 (15.0) 3 (5.8%)	100.0 (82.6) 3 (3.0%)	50.5 (62.4) 22 (11.0%)	112.5 (81.5) 6 (4.0%)

Table 7.3.5 and Table 7.3.6 show that although watching TV or DVDs was more popular amongst PH students in 2013, it was NPH students who tended to spend slightly more time watching, on week-days (4 minutes) and weekend-days (10 minutes). There was a similar pattern found for internet browsing and video gaming, and participation rates for both activities were consistently higher in the PH sub-group on week-days and weekend-days. NPH students spent more time internet browsing, especially on weekend-days (24 minutes). Moreover, NPH students spent more time video gaming than PH students by 1 hour and 7 minutes on week-days, although this decreased to 56 minutes on weekend-days.

PH students tended to spend more time social networking in 2013: a consistent finding on week-days (37 minutes) and weekend-days (41 minutes). However, participation rates were higher in the NPH sub-group on week-days (12.0 percentage points) and weekend-days (4.4 percentage points). Moreover, PH students spent more time listening to music. Indeed, they spent some 45 minutes more than NPH students listening to music on week-days and 140 minutes more on weekend-days. However, participation rates were higher amongst NPH students, especially on weekend-days (10 percentage points). Downloading media was more popular in the NPH sub-group, especially on week-days. Although, it was PH students who tended to spend more of their time downloading media compared with NPH students: a consistent finding for week-days and weekend-days.

Table 7.3.5 Comparisons of patterns of week-day screen time in 2012 and 2013: term-time residence

Week-day Activity	PH 2012	PH 2013	NPH 2012	NPH 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Watching TV or DVD	105.1 (67.8) 27 (96.4%)	143.4 (102.5) 21 (95.5%)	109.0 (69.8) 163 (94.8%)	119.5 (81.8) 130 (97.0%)	108.4 (69.3) 190 (95.0%)	122.8 (85.0) 151 (96.8%)
Social networking	72.4 (111.4) 17 (60.7%)	52.7 (58.5) 9 (40.9%)	38.1 (33.6) 125 (72.7%)	29.1 (25.2) 63 (47.0%)	42.2 (50.2) 142 (71.0%)	32.1 (31.6) 72 (47.7%)
Internet browsing	38.2 (64.8) 19 (67.9%)	68.0 (70.3) 9 (40.9%)	39.2 (39.5) 78 (45.4%)	38.8 (46.5) 58 (43.3%)	39.0 (45.2) 97 (48.5%)	42.7 (50.6) 67 (44.4%)
Video gaming	40.2 (32.6) 10 (35.7%)	25.0 (29.5) 6 (27.3%)	67.0 (68.7) 44 (25.6%)	25.3 (25.8) 32 (23.9%)	62.0 (64.1) 54 (27.0%)	78.2 (80.2) 40 (26.5%)
Listening to music	63.8 (125.9) 8 (28.6%)	80.0 (68.2) 3 (13.6%)	19.0 (18.4) 50 (29.1%)	78.0 (81.9) 37 (27.6%)	25.1 (49.8) 58 (29.0%)	25.3 (26.0) 38 (25.2%)
Downloading media	22.0 (9.2) 3 (10.7%)	- -	32.1 (33.5) 28 (16.3%)	26.1 (42.1) 14 (10.4%)	31.2 (32.0) 31 (15.5%)	26.1 (42.1) 14 (9.3%)

Table 7.3.6 Comparisons of patterns of weekend-day screen time in 2012 and 2013: term-time residence

Weekend-day Activity	PH 2012	PH 2013	NPH 2012	NPH 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Watching TV or DVD	151.2 (76.6) 25 (89.3%)	206.1 (133.3) 19 (86.4%)	160.7 (102.7) 152 (88.4%)	184.7 (124.8) 125 (93.3%)	159.3 (99.3) 177 (88.5%)	187.5 (125.7) 144 (95.4%)
Social networking	111.0 (148.5) 10 (35.7%)	198.8 (234.1) 4 (18.2%)	70.4 (61.5) 69 (40.1%)	58.0 (49.8) 38 (28.4%)	75.6 (77.6) 79 (39.5%)	71.4 (89.4) 42 (27.8%)
Internet browsing	87.9 (118.9) 7 (25.0%)	56.3 (33.3) 4 (18.2%)	75.9 (80.5) 51 (29.7%)	65.3 51.5) 31 (23.1%)	77.3 (84.8) 58 (29.0%)	64.3 (49.4) 35 (23.2%)
Video gaming	85.7 (82.9) 7 (25.0%)	50.0 (48.2) 3 (13.6%)	141.9 (84.9) 24 (14.0%)	50.3 (32.6) 17 (12.7%)	129.2 (86.4) 31 (15.5%)	130.2 (98.2) 31 (20.5%)
Listening to music	187.5 (222.7) 2 (7.1%)	111.0 (141.7) 5 (22.7%)	47.6 (32.1) 29 (16.9%)	133.8 (90.9) 26 (19.4%)	56.6 (61.9) 31 (15.5%)	50.3 (33.8) 20 (13.3%)
Downloading media	30.0 (15.0) 3 (10.7%)	- -	53.7 (66.6) 19 (11.1%)	112.5 (81.5) 6 (4.5%)	50.5 (62.4) 22 (11.0%)	112.5 (81.5) 6 (4.0%)

Table 7.3.7 and Table 7.3.8 show that second generation students tended to spend more time watching TV or DVDs than first generation students in 2013: a consistent finding for week-days (6 minutes) and weekend-days (17 minutes). Participation rates were higher among first generation students on week-days, although the converse was found on weekend-days. There was a similar pattern found for both internet browsing and video gaming, with second generation students tending to spend more time than first generation students on both activities. However, participation rates for both activities were higher in the first generation sub-group.

There were no differences found between first or second generation students in their social networking. Moreover, participation rates for listening to music were similar for both sub-groups, although first generation students tended to spend more time listening to music than second generation students. The difference on week-days (4 minutes) increased on weekend-days (20 minutes). Downloading media was the least popular screen time activity for both first and second generation students. Participation was higher amongst second generation students, and they spent more time on weekend-days (18 minutes) downloading (Table 7.3.7 and Table 7.3.8).

Table 7.3.7 Comparisons of patterns of week-day screen time in 2012 and 2013: students' family HE history

Week-day Activity	First generation 2012	First generation 2013	Second generation 2012	Second generation 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Watching TV or DVD	106.1 (66.5) 119 (96.7%)	122.9 (83.6) 90 (96.8%)	112.4 (74.2) 71 (92.2%)	122.7 (87.8) 61 (96.8%)	108.4 (69.3) 190 (95.0%)	122.8 (85.0) 151 (96.8%)
Social networking	42.1 (54.8) 87 (70.7%)	36.5 (36.9) 46 (49.5%)	42.3 (42.6) 55 (71.4%)	24.2 (17.1) 26 (41.3%)	42.2 (50.2) 142 (71.0%)	32.1 (31.6) 72 (47.7%)
Internet browsing	37.9 (48.0) 65 (52.8%)	41.4 (48.2) 40 (43.0%)	41.1 (39.3) 32 (41.6%)	44.7 (54.9) 27 (42.9%)	39.0 (45.2) 97 (48.5%)	42.7 (50.6) 67 (44.4%)
Video gaming	147.7 (159.2) 39 (31.7%)	24.7 (27.7) 25 (26.9%)	174.0 (167.3) 15 (19.5%)	26.3 (23.3) 13 (20.6%)	62.0 (64.1) 54 (27.0%)	78.2 (80.2) 40 (26.5%)
Listening to music	27.2 (61.3) 36 (29.3%)	75.4 (82.9) 25 (26.9%)	21.8 (21.1) 22 (28.6%)	82.8 (78.0) 15 (23.8%)	25.1 (49.8) 58 (29.0%)	25.3 (26.0) 38 (25.2%)
Downloading media	33.0 (34.6) 18 (14.6%)	31.3 (52.3%) 9 (9.7%)	28.6 (29.3) 13 (16.9%)	16.8 (10.7) 5 (7.9%)	31.2 (32.0) 31 (15.5%)	26.1 (42.1) 14 (9.3%)

Table 7.3.8 Comparisons of patterns of week-day screen time in 2012 and 2013: students' family HE history

Weekend-day Activity	First generation 2012	First generation 2013	Second generation 2012	Second generation 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Watching TV or DVD	152.7 (86.0) 107 (87.0%)	195.5 (119.5) 85 (91.4%)	169.5 (116.7) 70 (90.9%)	175.9 (134.2) 59 (93.7%)	159.3 (99.3) 177 (88.5%)	187.5 (125.7) 144 (95.4%)
Social networking	75.6 (85.4) 49 (39.8%)	78.5 (100.4) 30 (32.3%)	75.5 (64.3) 30 (39.0%)	53.8 (52.5) 12 (19.0%)	75.6 (77.6) 79 (39.5%)	71.4 (89.4) 42 (27.8%)
Internet browsing	58.9 (73.9) 43 (35.0%)	63.3 (49.9) 23 (24.7%)	79.2 (84.9) 25 (32.5%)	66.3 (50.5) 12 (19.0%)	77.3 (84.8) 58 (29.0%)	64.3 (49.4) 35 (23.2%)
Video gaming	110.9 (74.1) 23 (18.7%)	49.6 (32.0) 13 (13.9%)	181.9 (102.2) 8 (10.4%)	51.4 (39.6) 7 (11.1%)	129.2 (86.4) 31 (15.5%)	130.2 (98.2) 31 (20.5%)
Listening to music	63.8 (74.4) 20 (16.3%)	111.5 (90.7) 23 (24.7%)	43.6 (26.4) 11 (14.3%)	183.8 (105.1) 8 (12.7%)	56.6 (61.9) 31 (15.5%)	50.3 (33.8) 20 (13.3%)
Downloading media	40.5 (17.4) 10 (8.1%)	96.0 (79.1) 5 (5.4%)	58.8 (83.8) 12 (15.6%)	195.0 (0.0) 1 (1.6%)	50.5 (62.4) 22 (11.0%)	112.5 (81.5) 6 (4.0%)

7.4 Socializing in 2013: sub-group analysis

The following section reports the results for each activity which constituted socializing by the sex of students. Tables 7.4.1, and Table 7.4.2, show how socializing differed between males and females on week-days and weekend-days respectively. For the panel as a whole, chatting with their friends was consistently the most popular activity on a week-day regardless of sex and this was reflected in the high participation rates for both sexes. That said, females tended to spend slightly more time chatting than males in 2012 (4 minutes) and this increased in 2013 (17 minutes). Time spent chatting on a weekend-day however, increased for both males and females (Table 7.4.2)

The time spent shopping for pleasure by the panel remained relatively stable in 2013 indicating some continuity, although a higher proportion of females spent time in this activity although there was an increase in time spent by both sexes in this activity increased on a weekend-day, females continued to participate more than males (Table 7.4.1 & Table 7.4.2).

Participation rates for going out for a meal were highest among females on a week-day: a consistent finding in both 2012 and 2013 by 18 and 23 percentage points respectively: a consistent finding on a weekend-day also. In addition, females spent more time undertaking this activity

Males however, were more likely to participate in society or club meetings than females on a week-day (Table 7.4.1) and although participation on a weekend-day decreased, the time spent by those who participated increased (7.4.2).

Table 7.4.1 Comparisons of patterns of week-day socializing in 2012 and 2013: males and females

Week-day Activity	Males 2012	Males 2013	Females 2012	Females 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Chatting with friends	74.2 (56.1) 53 (81.5%)	65.3 (56.1) 36 (70.6%)	78.1 (67.5) 114 (84.4%)	82.6 (73.0) 84 (80.0%)	76.9 (64.0) 167 (83.5)	77.5 (68.6) 120 (76.9%)
Shopping for pleasure	31.3 (15.6) 18 (27.7%)	29.8 (18.3) 24 (47.1%)	27.5 (18.1) 66 (48.9%)	29.8 (18.7) 57 (54.3%)	28.3 (17.6) 84 (42.0%)	29.8 (18.4) 81 (51.9%)
Drinking alcohol	77.2 (52.4) 30 (46.2%)	59.5 (42.9) 26 (51.0%)	55.4 (40.7) 48 (35.6%)	45.2 (37.5) 39 (37.1%)	63.8 (46.4) 78 (39.0%)	51.0 (40.0) 65 (41.7%)
Going out for a drink	50.8 (32.0) 17 (26.2%)	39.5 (36.5) 12 (23.5%)	38.6 (28.1) 40 (29.6%)	36.9 (33.2) 27 (25.7%)	42.2 (29.5) 57 (28.5%)	37.7 (33.8) 39 (19.5%)
Going out for a meal	23.4 (7.7) 10 (15.4%)	25.8 (18.1) 10 (19.6%)	28.3 (21.7) 45 (33.3%)	28.4 (20.2) 45 (42.9%)	27.4 (20.0) 55 (27.5%)	27.9 (19.7) 55 (35.3%)
Society or club meeting	46.9 (34.4) 16 (24.6%)	58.3 (45.8) 14 (27.5%)	40.8 (29.8) 15 (11.1%)	39.2 (25.5) 19 (18.1%)	43.9 (31.9) 31 (15.5%)	47.2 (36.2) 33 (21.2%)
Going out to a party	55.6 (61.0) 11 (16.9%)	22.3 (17.2) 12 (23.5%)	51.9 (53.4) 20 (14.8%)	15.1 (10.7) 20 (19.0%)	53.2 (55.2) 31 (15.5%)	42.8 (32.9) 32 (20.5%)
Dancing	48.8 (39.3) 8 (12.3%)	34.2 (9.0) 10 (19.6%)	40.5 (26.5) 32 (23.7%)	43.6 (31.2) 15 (14.3%)	42.2 (29.1) 40 (20.0%)	39.8 (24.9) 25 (16.1%)
Day out	42.0 (20.5) 8 (12.3%)	51.0 (29.7) 2 (3.9%)	37.9 (28.4) 25 (18.5%)	33.8 (13.2) 8 (7.6%)	38.9 (26.5) 33 (16.5%)	37.2 (16.9) 10 (6.4%)
Cinema, theatre or concert	61.0 (33.0) 6 (9.2%)	32.0 (9.2) 3 (5.9%)	36.3 (15.2) 23 (17.0%)	33.9 (10.8) 17 (16.2%)	41.4 (21.9) 29 (14.5%)	33.6 (10.4) 20 (12.8%)

Table 7.4.2 Comparisons of patterns of weekend-day socializing in 2012 and 2013: males and females

Weekend-day Activity	Males 2012	Males 2013	Females 2012	Females 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Chatting with friends	102.6 (66.9) 38 (58.5%)	120.7 (84.1) 23 (45.1%)	97.2 (83.6) 85 (63.0%)	113.1 (92.6) 59 (56.2%)	98.9 (78.6) 123 (61.5%)	115.2 (89.8) 82 (52.6%)
Shopping for pleasure	60.0 (41.1) 9 (13.9%)	62.7 (32.0) 11 (21.6%)	81.4 (48.2) 47 (34.8%)	78.1 (45.1) 29 (27.6%)	77.9 (47.5) 56 (28.0%)	73.9 (42.1) 40 (25.6%)
Drinking alcohol	136.5 (124.8) 10 (15.4%)	110.6 (57.2) 8 (15.7%)	105.9 (85.1) 16 (11.9%)	100.7 (52.1) 14 (13.3%)	117.7 (100.9) 26 (13.0)	104.3 (52.9) 22 (14.1%)
Going out for a drink	85.5 (51.0) 10 (15.4%)	93.3 (80.7) 9 (17.6%)	90.7 (56.4) 23 (17.0%)	108.0 (50.1) 15 (14.3%)	89.1 (54.1) 33 (16.5%)	102.5 (62.0) 24 (15.4%)
Going out for a meal	53.0 (28.3) 15 (23.1%)	60.0 (27.8) 8 (15.7%)	64.4 (34.9) 41 (30.4%)	45.8 (30.2) 20 (19.0%)	61.3 (33.4) 56 (28.0%)	49.8 (29.7) 28 (18.0%)
Society or club meeting	146.3 (143.0) 4 (6.2%)	70.0 (8.7) 3 (5.9%)	82.5 (49.7) 4 (3.0%)	54.0 (31.1) 5 (7.6%)	114.4 (104.8) 8 (4.0%)	60.0 (25.4) 8 (5.1%)
Going out to a party	105.0 (127.3) 2 (3.1%)	112.5 (53.0) 2 (3.9%)	96.4 (83.9) 7 (5.2%)	97.5 (116.7) 2 (1.9%)	98.3 (85.5) 9 (4.5%)	105.0 (74.5) 4 (2.6%)
Dancing	90.0 (0.0) 1 (1.5%)	- -	77.1 (51.5) 7 (5.2%)	60.0 (32.4) 4 (3.8%)	78.8 (47.9) 8 (4.0%)	60.0 (32.4) 4 (2.6%)
Day out	157.5 (179.4) 6 (9.2%)	75.0 (21.1) 2 (3.9%)	115.0 (52.5) 21 (15.6%)	90.0 (53.0) 9 (8.6%)	124.4 (92.9) 27 (13.5%)	87.3 (48.3) 11 (7.1%)
Cinema, theatre or concert	78.0 (12.5) 5 (7.7%)	55.0 (34.6) 3 (5.9%)	95.6 (23.8) 16 (11.9%)	88.1 (20.3) 8 (7.6%)	91.4 (22.7) 21 (10.5%)	79.1 (27.7) 11 (7.1%)

The following section reports the results for each activity which constituted socializing by the sex of students. Tables 7.4.3, and Table 7.4.4, show how socializing differed, based on term-time residential status (PH/NPH) on week-days and weekend-days respectively. Notwithstanding the overall propensity for students in the panel to spend much of their time chatting with friends, Table 7.4.3 shows how NPH students spent more time on a week-day chatting than PH students in both 2012 and 2013 (22 minutes and 38 minutes respectively). There was a similar finding for this activity on a weekend-day (Table 7.4.4).

Although time spent drinking alcohol is reported in the following chapter, students who spent time going out for a drink (including non-alcoholic drinks) tended to spend more time doing so on weekend-days compared with week-days in both 2012 and 2013. In addition, weekend-day participation rates were relatively similar regardless of student's term-time residential status (within a range of 9 percentage points). That said, on a week-day, a larger proportion of NPH students spent their time going out for a drink, and this was consistent at both time points (Table 7.4.3 & Table 7.4.4).

Term-time residence also shaped week-day time use patterns in regard of society and/or club meetings and it was NPH students who tended to participate more compared with their PH colleagues in 2012 (10 percentage points) and this increased in 2013 (14 percentage points) (Table 7.4.3).

Table 7.4.3 Comparison in week-day socializing in 2012 and 2013: term-time residence

Week-day Activity	PH 2012	PH 2013	NPH 2012	NPH 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Chatting with friends	58.0 (31.5) 21 (75.0%)	43.5 (33.3) 12 (54.5%)	79.6 (67.0) 146 (84.9%)	81.2 (70.5) 108 (80.6%)	76.9 (64.0) 167 (83.5)	77.5 (68.6) 120 (76.9%)
Shopping for pleasure	27.0 (19.2) 10 (35.7%)	27.0 (21.7) 6 (27.3%)	28.5 (17.5) 74 (43.0%)	30.0 (18.3) 75 (56.0%)	28.3 (17.6) 84 (42.0%)	29.8 (18.4) 81 (51.9%)
Drinking alcohol	90.9 (57.5) 7 (25.0%)	51.6 (30.2) 5 (22.7%)	61.1 (44.8) 71 (41.3%)	50.9 (41.0) 60 (44.8%)	63.8 (46.4) 78 (39.0%)	51.0 (40.0) 65 (41.7%)
Going out for a drink	45.0 (35.9) 6 (21.4%)	20.4 (6.8) 5 (22.7%)	41.9 (29.1) 51 (29.7%)	28.7 (20.4) 50 (37.3%)	42.2 (29.5) 57 (28.5%)	27.9 (19.7) 55 (35.3%)
Going out for a meal	24.0 (12.0) 7 (25.0%)	54.0 (54.1) 4 (18.2%)	27.9 (20.9) 48 (27.9%)	35.8 (31.4) 35 (26.1%)	27.4 (20.0) 55 (27.5%)	37.7 (33.8) 39 (19.5%)
Society or club meeting	39.0 (29.7) 2 (7.1%)	57.0 (63.6) 2 (9.1%)	44.3 (32.5) 29 (16.9%)	46.6 (35.4) 31 (23.1%)	43.9 (31.9) 31 (15.5%)	47.2 (36.2) 33 (21.2%)
Going out to a party	18.0 (20.8) 3 (10.7%)	- -	57.0 (56.6) 28 (16.3%)	42.8 (32.9) 32 (23.9%)	53.2 (55.2) 31 (15.5%)	42.8 (32.9) 32 (20.5%)
Dancing	8.4 (3.3) 5 (17.9%)	21.0 (21.2) 2 (9.1%)	47.0 (27.9) 35 (20.4%)	41.5 (24.9) 23 (17.2%)	42.2 (29.1) 40 (20.0%)	39.8 (24.9) 25 (16.1%)
Day out	60.0 (67.9) 2 (7.1%)	- -	37.5 (23.7) 31 (18.0%)	37.2 (16.9) 10 (6.4%)	38.9 (26.5) 33 (16.5%)	37.2 (16.9) 10 (6.4%)
Cinema, theatre or concert	43.3 (22.8) 9 (32.1%)	22.0 (9.2) 3 (13.6%)	40.5 (22.0) 20 (11.6%)	35.6 (9.4) 17 (12.7%)	41.4 (21.9) 29 (14.5%)	33.6 (10.4) 20 (12.8%)

Table 7.4.4 Comparison in weekend-day socializing in 2012 and 2013: term-time residence

Weekend-day Activity	PH 2012	PH 2013	NPH 2012	NPH 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Chatting with friends	86.7 (58.5) 9 (32.1%)	66.8 (41.5) 11 (50.0%)	99.9 (80.1) 114 (66.3%)	122.7 (93.1) 71 (53.0%)	98.9 (78.6) 123 (61.5%)	115.2 (89.8) 82 (52.6%)
Shopping for pleasure	75.0 (68.2) 7 (25.0%)	93.8 (30.9) 4 (18.2%)	78.4 (44.7) 49 (28.5%)	71.7 (42.9) 36 (26.9%)	77.9 (47.5) 56 (28.0%)	73.9 (42.1) 40 (25.6%)
Drinking alcohol	150.0 (0.0) 1 (3.6%)	116.3 (60.5) 4 (18.2%)	116.4 (102.8) 25 (14.5%)	101.7 (52.6) 18 (13.4%)	117.7 (100.9) 26 (13.0)	104.3 (52.9) 22 (14.1%)
Going out for a drink	93.0 (58.5) 5 (17.9%)	82.5 (31.8) 2 (9.1%)	88.4 (54.4) 28 (16.3%)	104.3 (64.2) 22 (16.4%)	89.1 (54.1) 33 (16.5%)	102.5 (62.0) 24 (15.4%)
Going out for a meal	54.5 (20.4) 11 (39.3%)	52.5 (31.8) 2 (9.1%)	63.0 (35.8) 45 (26.2%)	49.6 (30.2) 26 (19.4%)	61.3 (33.4) 56 (28.0%)	49.8 (29.7) 28 (18.0%)
Society or club meeting	- -	60.0 (0.0) 1 (4.5%)	114.4 (104.8) 8 (4.7%)	64.3 (24.1) 7 (5.2%)	114.4 (104.8) 8 (4.0%)	60.0 (25.4) 8 (5.1%)
Going out to a party	142.5 (159.1) 2 (7.1%)	180.0 (0.0) 1 (4.6%)	85.7 (68.6) 7 (4.1%)	80.0 (67.6) 3 (2.2%)	98.3 (85.5) 9 (4.5%)	105.0 (74.5) 4 (2.6%)
Dancing	85.0 (60.6) 3 (10.7%)	60.0 (0.0) 1 (4.5%)	75.0 (46.2) 5 (2.9%)	60.0 (39.7) 3 (2.2%)	78.8 (47.9) 8 (4.0%)	60.0 (32.4) 4 (2.6%)
Day out	80.0 (60.6) 3 (10.7%)	45.0 (0.0) 1 (4.5%)	130.0 (95.7) 24 (14.0%)	91.5 (48.7) 10 (7.5%)	124.4 (92.9) 27 (13.5%)	87.3 (48.3) 11 (7.1%)
Cinema, theatre or concert	90.0 (21.2) 2 (7.1%)	45.0 (0.0) 1 (4.5%)	91.6 (23.4) 19 (11.1%)	91.5 (48.7) 10 (7.5%)	91.4 (22.7) 21 (10.5%)	79.1 (27.7) 11 (7.1%)

7.5 Physical activity in 2013: sub-group analysis

This section reports the results for physical activity by the sub-groups. As with the previous findings chapters, all sub-groups have been condensed into one table for clarity of reporting. Table 7.5.1 shows students' patterns of time use in their physical activity on a week-day in 2013 alongside 2012 for comparison.

Table 7.5.1 Changes in week-day physical activity in2012 and 2013: all sub-group demographics

	2012		2013	
Sub-group	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**
Males	65.1 (47.9)	49 (75.4%)	177.5 (78.5)	36 (70.6%)
Females	38.6 (33.7)	77 (57.0%)	163.9 (89.2)	49 (46.7%)
18 years	47.9 (38.9)	42 (62.7%)	-	-
19 years	48.0 (41.1)	57 (70.4%)	44.8 (27.1)	30 (54.6%)
20 years and over	52.7 (48.1)	27 (51.9%)	54.1 (50.5)	55 (54.5%)
Parental home (PH)	40.9 (28.5)	16 (57.1%)	57.3 (57.2)	11 (52.4%)
Non-parental home (NPH)	50.1 (43.3)	110 (64.0%)	49.9 (41.8)	74 (55.2%)
First generation	48.2 (44.1)	80 (65.0%)	50.6 (47.4)	54 (58.1%)
Second generation	50.2 (37.7)	46 (59.7%)	51.3 (37.2)	31 (49.2%)

Sex differences in patterns of time use on a week-day were apparent in physical activity. A larger proportion of males tended to participate compared with females and this was consistent for 2012 (18 percentage points) and 2013 (23 percentage points). In addition, males consistently spent more time on average than females doing physical activity on a week-day in 2012 (26 minutes) and in 2013 (12

minutes) which suggested an increase in those who were already consumers of sport and physical activity (Table 7.5.1).

In terms of residential status, physical activity in 2012 was undertaken by a larger proportion of NPH students compared with PH students (7 percentage points). Moreover, NPH students who did some physical activity on a week-day in 2012, tended to spend more time undertaking some form of physical activity. There were few differences based on their family HE history (Table 7.5.2).

Table 7.5.2 shows students' patterns of time use in their physical activity on a weekend-day in 2013 alongside 2012 for comparison.

Table 7.5.2 Changes in weekend-day physical activity in2012 and 2013: all sub-group demographics

	2012		2013	
Sub-group	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**
Males	62.8 (43.8)	27 (41.5%)	80.0 (69.8)	18 (35.3%)
Females	52.1 (35.0)	38 (28.2%)	79.5 (57.2)	20 (19.1%)
18 years	49.4 (35.0)	24 (35.8%)	-	-
19 years	56.9 (30.1)	29 (21.5%)	88.1 (82.9)	16 (29.1%)
20 years and over	70.0 (60.5)	12 (23.1%)	73.6 (43.6)	22 (21.8%)
Parental home (PH)	62.1 (35.1)	7 (25.0%)	75.0 (27.4)	4 (19.1%)
Non-parental home (NPH)	55.9 (39.6)	58 (33.7%)	80.3 (65.7)	34 (25.4%)
First generation	55.7 (40.3)	35 (28.5%)	68.7 (45.4)	19 (30.2%)
Second generation	57.5 (38.0)	30 (39.0%)	90.8 (75.7)	19 (20.4%)

Sex differences in patterns of time use on a weekend-day in physical activity were consistent with the findings for week-days in that, males tended to spend more time than females doing physical activity in 2012 (10 minutes) and 2013 (10 minutes). Moreover, a larger proportion of males participated at both time points (Table 7.5.2).

Interestingly, the overall decline in physical activity seemed to be associated with term-time residential status. For example, in terms of participation rates, they were lower on a weekend-day compared with a week-day: a consistent finding at both time points. Similarly, time spent doing physical activity decreased, although NPH students still tended to spend a little longer on their physical activity in 2012 (7 minutes) and 2013 (5 minutes).

Following a further comparative analysis of leisure time use data in 2012 and 2013 for activities that comprised the socializing leisure domain it was judged that these data would not be presented in the main findings of this thesis in regard of either age groups or family HE background. The tables are however, shown in Appendix 11.

7.6 Summary of changing leisure time use in 2013

Overall, the student's leisure time use changed in 2013 in the following ways. Notwithstanding the overall decline in time spent on leisure *per se*, screen time increased, with the major activities being watching TV or DVDs and downloading media. This was regardless of the day of the week. Other changes were social networking, which declined in 2013 both in terms of participation rates and the

time students spent social networking among both males and females, and, especially among NPH students.

Time spent socializing in 2013 also decreased overall, although students continued to spend much of their socializing time chatting with friends. The sub-groups of students where most changes were found were based on their term-time residential status. For example, the propensity for NPH students to spend more time in university-based activity such as society or club meetings was noted. Moreover, these students tended to spend more time on average in these types of activity.

There was also a considerable decrease in participation in physical activity in 2013 which was consistent on both week-days and weekend-days. In this activity, it was sex and term-time residential status where there was evidence of continuity alongside change. For example, in terms of continuity a larger proportion of males compared with females undertook some physical activity, and also tended to spend more of their time on average doing so – this was consistent for both points in time. In terms of change however, it was the noted decrease in both sub-groups in terms of their rates of participation and their average time doing physical activity.

Chapter 8

Students and alcohol

8.1 Introduction

This chapter examines in detail drinking alcohol as an aspect of students' leisure time use in 2012 and again in 2013. First, the chapter explains how 'student drinkers' were defined as a sub-group within the panel, including how their 'secondary' activity data was used to inform the findings presented, in other words, if they were drinking alcohol alongside their main activity. Second, student drinkers are described in terms of their key characteristics. Next, patterns of time spent drinking alcohol are examined in relation to different sub-groups of students.

Time use data is supplemented with additional data from students' diaries including data on their: secondary activities and Location; who they were with and any activities prior to drinking alcohol. Finally, students' time spent drinking alcohol is examined over the course of one week, on a day-by-day basis. This contextual information is used to further illuminate how alcohol was woven into the social fabric of students' lives.

8.2 Defining student 'drinkers' in the panel

Drinking alcohol was a leisure activity defined as distinct from other leisure activities during which alcohol may have been consumed. For example, going out for a drink or going to a party are social activities which are often associated with the consumption of alcohol. However, not all students consumed alcohol during these leisure activities. Therefore, considering the research aim of setting alcohol in an overall leisure context, it was deemed important to be as specific as possible

in terms of determining the student drinkers from non-drinkers in terms of their leisure time. The following sections examine 'drinking alcohol' as it was defined in the time use diary by the use of activity code 30 as either a main or secondary activity in the diary. Utilization of the student's secondary activity data from their diaries was undertaken solely based on their use of activity code 30 'drinking alcohol' as either a main or secondary activity, and great care must be taken when interpreting the data. The Centre for Time Use Research (2013: 48), note that care should be taken in interpreting this type of data:

> Simultaneous activities do not sum to 1440, nor should the user attempt to do so. While people may undertake more than one activity at the same time (such as driving while listening to the radio), the surveys harmonised here have highly variant instructions about the degree of detail respondents should try to capture in the recording of secondary activities. Also, the degree of commitment implied by different combinations of activities is not the same

Therefore, the data presented throughout this chapter are only indicative of patterns of time use among students and sub-groups of students in the panel. Table 8.2.1 reports the participation rates of student drinkers and their characteristics in 2012 and 2013. If they consumed alcohol (activity code 30) as a primary or secondary activity on any day during the week they completed their diary they were categorized as a 'drinker'. Table 8.2.1 illustrates how overall participation rates in drinking increased in 2013 compared with 2012, on a week-day with a very small increase on a weekend-day.

Table 8.2.1 Characteristics of students who reported drinking alcohol as either a main or secondary activity on a week-day and weekend-day: participation rates

Year surveyed (Week-day and weekend-day)	2012	'drinkers' 2012 (WD)	'drinkers' 2012 (WE)	2013	'drinkers' 2013 (WD)	'drinkers' 2013 (WE)
	N	N (%)	N (%)	N	N (%)	N (%)
All	200	154 (77.0)	67 (33.5)	156	139 (89.1)	55 (35.3)
Males	65	53 (81.5)	23 (35.4)	51	49 (98.1)	19 (37.3)
Females	135	101 (87.3)	44 (32.6)	105	90 (85.7)	36 (34.3)
18 years	67	59 (88.1)	26 (38.8)	*	*	*
19 years	81	69 (85.2)	29 (35.8)	5	49 (89.1)	36 (65.5)
20 years and over	53	26 (50.0)	12 (21.8)	101	90 (89.1)	19 (18.8)
Parental home (PH)	28	16 (57.1)	8 (28.6)	22	14 (63.6)	6 (27.3)
Non-parental home (NPH)	172	138 (69.0)	59 (34.3)	134	125 (93.3)	49 (36.6)
First generation	123	90 (73.2)	36 (29.3)	93	80 (86.0)	23 (29.9)
Second generation	77	63 (81.8)	29 (31.2)	63	59 (93.7)	22 (34.9)

*** No data reported for this age group**

Moreover, student drinking was more prevalent on week-days compared with weekend-days, and this was consistent in both 2012 and 2013. The propensity for a larger proportion of students to drink on week-days was noted in all sub-groups, although, particularly among the females (87.3 per cent), 18 and 19 years age groups (88.1 and 85.2 per cent respectively), NPH students (69.0 per cent) and second generation students (81.8 per cent). Notwithstanding the lower participation rates for all sub-groups of students on weekend-days in 2012 and 2013, a larger proportion of males than females spent time drinking on weekend-days. In the case of students' age groups, there was a preference for week-day drinking for both sub-groups, although, a larger proportion of the 19 years sub-group (65.5 per cent) drank alcohol on a weekend-day, compared to the 20 years and over sub-group (18.8 per cent). While patterns of participation remained consistent in terms of the students' term-time residential status (PH or NPH) and their family HE history (first generation or second generation), it was the case that both these sub-groups reported an increase in participation in 2013 compared with 2012, on both week-days (24 percentage points) and weekend-days (4 percentage points).

8.3 Drinking alcohol: sub-group analysis

Table 8.3.1 and Table 8.3.2 report the time use data for drinking alcohol by sub-group. For clarity of reporting, students' sex, age, term-time residence status and family HE history data have been condensed into a single table for week-day data, and another for weekend-day data.

Table 8.3.1 Drinking alcohol on a week-day: sub-group analysis

Drinking Alcohol on a Week-day	Drinking alcohol as main activity				Drinking alcohol as secondary activity			
	2012		2013		2012		2013	
Sub-group	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**
All	78 (39.0)	63.8 (46.4)	65 (41.7)	51.0 (40.0)	76 (38.0)	41.2 (36.7)	74 (47.4)	40.6 (33.9)
Males	30 (46.2)	77.2 (52,4)	26 (51.0)	59.5 (42.9)	23 (35.4)	54.5 (35.1)	23 (35.4)	42.8 (28.5)
Females	48 (35.6)	55.4 (40.7)	39 (37.1)	45.2 (37.5)	53 (38.5)	45.9 (37.3)	51 (37.8)	39.6 (34.1)
18 years	31 (46.3)	56.7 (43.8)	-	-	28 (41.8)	47.3 (39.0)	-	-
19 years	38 (46.9)	72.5 (49.4)	25 (45.5)	57.6 (49.1)	31 (38.3)	43.4 (35.6)	24 (43.6)	39.6 (38.0)
20 years and over	9 (17.3)	51.3 (39.4)	40 (39.6)	46.8 (33.2)	17 (32.7)	60.0 (34.1)	50 (49.5)	51.5 (48.9)
Parental home (PH)	7 (25.0)	90.9 (57.5)	5 (22.7)	51.6 (30.2)	9 (32.1)	45.0 (28.9)	9 (40.9)	20.0 (17.0)
Non-parental home (NPH)	71 (41.3)	61.1 (44.8)	60 (44.8)	50.9 (41.0)	67 (39.0)	49.0 (37.6)	65 (48.5)	43.5 (32.9)
First generation	44 (35.8)	65.7 (47.8)	38 (40.9)	50.8 (39.4)	46 (37.4)	47.2 (37.0)	42 (45.2)	41.7 (32.1)
Second generation	34 (44.2)	61.2 (45.2)	27 (42.9)	51.1 (41.6)	29 (37.7)	50.7 (36.6)	32 (50.8)	39.2 (33.0)

Table 8.3.1 shows that on a week-day males consistently spent more time on average, drinking than females in 2012 and in 2013 regardless of their drinking being reported as a main or secondary activity. That said, in terms of participation rates, a larger proportion of females recorded drinking alcohol as secondary to something else they were doing at that moment in time (concurrent activities are examined in more detail in the next section).

In terms of the patterns of week-day drinking time use and how they developed between 2012 and 2013, there was an overall increase in participation rates for drinking reported by students as a main activity in 2013, while they remained relatively unchanged when reported as a secondary activity. However, overall, there was a decrease in the time both males and females were drinking on average on week-days in 2013: this was consistent whether drinking was reported as a main or secondary activity (Table 8.3.1).

In terms of age in 2012, a larger proportion of the 18 and 19 years sub-groups spent time drinking on a week-day compared to the 20 years and over sub-group. This was consistent when drinking was recorded as either a main or secondary activity. In 2013 however, the participation rates were highest in the 19 years sub-group (46.9 per cent) as a main activity, and among the 20 years and over sub-group as a secondary activity, which indicates that students in the older age sub-groups were drinking alongside other activities.

Moreover, the 18 year old and 19 year old sub-groups spent more time on average drinking alcohol as a main activity on a week-day in 2012 than the older sub-group by 5 minutes and 21 minutes respectively. While this age-

related difference was apparent in 2013, when drinking was a secondary activity, it was found that students in the 20 years and over sub-group spent longer drinking than those who were 19 years.

Term-time residence data varied considerably between PH and NPH students. For example, on a week-day in 2012, PH students spent more time drinking alcohol than NPH students when they were drinking as their main activity by over 30 minutes, although the converse was found when students reported drinking as a secondary activity and NPH students spent 4 minutes longer drinking. Indeed, NPH students spent consistently longer drinking alcohol than PH students when they reported this as a secondary activity. In terms of participation rates, these were consistently higher among NPH students, regardless of which year they were surveyed and whether or not they were drinking as a main or secondary activity (Table 8.3.1).

There were few distinguishing features in patterns of time use based on the students' family HE history. Indeed, although second generation students reported higher participation rates for drinking on a week-day in both 2012 and 2013, the differences were in the order of a few percentage points. Similarly, in terms of the time students spent drinking alcohol, any differences were in the order of only a few minutes, suggesting that in terms of this data, drinking alcohol was class neutral (see Table 8.3.1)

Table 8.3.2 shows patterns of weekend-day time use data.

Table 8.3.2 Drinking alcohol on a weekend-day: sub-group analysis

Drinking Alcohol on a Weekend-day	Drinking alcohol as main activity				Drinking alcohol as secondary activity			
	2012		2013		2012		2013	
Sub-group	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**	**Participation rate N (%)**	**Participation mean (SD)**
All	26 (13.0)	117.7 (100.9)	22 (14.1)	104.3 (52.9)	41 (20.5)	88.4 (60.6)	33 (21.2)	95.3 (67.9)
Males	10 (15.4)	136.5 (124.8)	8 (15.7)	110.6 (57.2)	13 (20.0)	65.8 (50.3)	11 (16.9)	166.4 (82.3)
Females	16 (11.9)	105.9 (85.1)	14 (13.3)	100.7 (52.1)	28 (20.7)	106.6 (62.5)	22 (16.3)	73.0 (62.3)
18 years	10 (14.9)	123.0 (116.6)	-	-	16 (23.9)	81.6 (52.8)	-	-
19 years	13 (16.1)	98.1 (73.4)	11 (20.0)	103.6 (53.4)	16 (30.8)	105.0 (56.9)	11 (16.7)	137.7 (108.1)
20 years and over	3 (5.8)	185.0 (156.1)	11 (10.9)	105.0 (54.9)	9 (17.3)	95.0 (83.5)	8 (22.9)	73.1 (56.4)
Parental home (PH)	1 (3.6)	45.0 (0.0)	4 (18.2)	36 (26.9)	7 (25.0)	107.1 (69.5)	2 (9.1)	45.0 (42.4)
Non-parental home (NPH)	25 (14.5)	116.4 (102.8)	18 (13.4)	101.7 (52.6)	34 (19.8)	90.9 (60.3)	31 (23.1)	107.9 (82.5)
First generation	14 (11.4)	144.6 (125.2)	14 (15.1)	93.2 (52.4)	24 (19.5)	103.1 (64.1)	19 (20.4)	112.1 (75.2)
Second generation	12 (15.6)	86.3 (51.2)	8 (12.7)	123.8 (51.2)	17 (22.1)	80.3 (56.4)	14 (22.2)	93.2 (91.4)

Table 8.3.2 shows that, overall participation rates for drinking alcohol on a weekend-day were consistently lower compared with a week-day. Furthermore, the overall average time spent drinking alcohol among those who participated increased considerably on a weekend-day in 2012 as a main activity (54 minutes), and as a secondary activity (47 minutes). The pattern of increase in student drinkers' participation mean times for drinking alcohol was also found in 2013 as a main activity (53 minutes) and as a secondary activity (55 minutes).

In terms of sex differences in the students' patterns of time spent drinking, on a weekend-day males consistently spent more time on average, drinking than females in 2012 (31 minutes) and in 2013 (10 minutes) as their main activity, and this was also found when they reported drinking as their secondary activity in 2013 (1 hour and 33 minutes). However, the converse was found for females who reported drinking as a secondary activity in 2012 (41 minutes).

A larger proportion of males recorded drinking alcohol as their main activity than females in 2012 and 2013, although, any differences they did report were in the order of a few percentage points. This was consistent in their drinking as a secondary activity for 2012 and 2013 (see Table 8.3.2).

Similarly to the week-day data in terms of students' age, it was the 18 and 19 years sub-groups that reported the highest weekend-day participation rates for drinking as a main activity in 2012, although, the 20 years and over group spent considerably more time on average drinking. When drinking was

a secondary activity, it was the 19 years age group who reported the highest participation rates in both 2012 (30.8 per cent) and in 2013 (22.9 per cent).

Term-time residence continued to shape students' patterns of time spent drinking at the weekend, and NPH students reported the most time on average drinking as a main activity on a weekend-day in both 2012 (1 hour and 56 minutes), and in 2013 (1 hour and 41 minutes). However, as a secondary activity, the pattern of drinking changed, and PH students reported higher participation rates (25 per cent) and spent longer on average drinking (1 hour and 45 minutes) in 2012.

Finally, participation rates based on the students' family HE history showed only differences of a few percentage points between first and second generation students. However, there were some notable differences in the time these sub-groups of students spent on drinking. For example, as a main activity in 2012, first generation students spent the most time on average drinking as a main activity on a weekend-day (2 hours and 25 minutes). This was also found when they reported drinking as a secondary activity in 2012 (1 hour and 43 minutes) (see Table 8.3.2).

8.4 Concurrent activities when drinking alcohol

Table 8.4.1 and Table 8.4.2 report the number of students in concurrent activities as a percentage (participation rate) while they were drinking alcohol either as a main or secondary activity. Some students (N=29)

reported drinking alcohol as both their primary and secondary activity, and this is discussed further in Chapter 12.

Table 8.4.1 Leisure activities concurrent when drinking alcohol reported as main activity: participation rate

(% of student drinkers in each activity)	2012		2013	
	WD*	WE*	WD*	WE*
Chatting with friends	39.8	64.4	45.5	30.1
Drinking Alcohol	28.2	2.5	1.0	3.7
Dancing	16.6	14.4	35.6	16.2
Listening to music	9.8	6.9	11.9	0.5
Watching TV	1.6	7.4	1.2	0.9
Going to a party	0.9	4.0	-	11.1
Others	1.2	0.4	3.3	5.9
Society/club meeting	1.0	-	0.5	-
Video gaming	0.9	-	1.0	4.6
using internet	-	-	-	7.9
Studying	-	-	-	6.9
Working (voluntary)	-	-	-	5.1
Going to see a film, play or concert	-	-	-	2.8
Day out	-	-	-	1.9
Travelling to/from University	-	-	-	1.9
Cooking/preparing a meal	-	-	-	0.5
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

***Weekday or weekend (WD/WE)**

Chatting with friends was the most popular secondary activity for the majority of students who were drinking alcohol as their main activity: a consistent finding on a week-day and a weekend-day in 2012 (39 per cent and 64 per cent respectively), and in 2013 (46 per cent and 30 per cent respectively).

The next most popular secondary activities tended to be focused around socializing with their friends, and included dancing, listening to music and going to parties. What was evident in the data was how students reported doing a more diverse range of activities whilst drinking in 2013 compared with 2012, particularly on a weekend-day. Table 8.4.2 shows concurrent leisure activities when drinking alcohol was reported as a secondary activity as their participation rate (i.e. the number of drinkers in that activity).

Table 8.4.2 Leisure activities concurrent when drinking alcohol reported as secondary activity: participation rate

(% of student drinkers in each activity)	2012		2013	
	WD*	WE*	WD*	WE*
Drinking alcohol	32.0	2.1	0.8	3.5
Out for a drink	16.5	20.3	9.2	17.0
Dancing	13.7	9.8	21.8	5.2
Chatting with friends	11.6	25.8	23.5	12.2
Out to a party	8.0	8.2	17.0	6.1
Out for a meal	0.3	10.5	5.5	0.4
Watching TV	4.9	12.3	4.8	34.9
Getting ready	4.7	2.3	4.2	4.4
Others	0.8	0.8	3.1	3.7
Eating	3.0	1.6	2.7	4.8
Listening to music	2.1	1.6	1.9	-
Video gaming	0.7	-	-	-
Travelling	0.7	1.6	1.1	1.7
Using the internet	0.6	0.4	-	-
Going to see a film, play or concert	0.1	2.7	1.3	-
Society/club meeting	0.1	-	2.7	6.1
Social networking	0.1	-	-	-
Reading for pleasure	0.1	-	-	-
Cooking/preparing a meal	-	-	0.4	-
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

***Weekday or weekend (WD/WE)**

Table 8.4.2 illustrates that, students who were drinking alcohol as a secondary activity reported a wider range of other activities as their main leisure activity. Indeed, this was consistent in 2012 and 2013, regardless of whether they were drinking on a week-day or a weekend-day. Moreover, there were some notable differences in the data for a week-day compared to a weekend-day. For example, leisure activities concurrent with drinking alcohol which involved being out socializing with their friends were more likely to occur on a week-day. However, activities concurrent with drinking alcohol which might be considered more sedentary (watching TV) were more likely to occur on a weekend-day (Table 8.4.2).

8.5 Leisure activities prior to drinking alcohol

The time use diary can be used to show a narrative of activities, location and who was with each student over the course of the seven day reference period. Indeed, the temporal aspect of the diary implies 'an order of events' which the diarist has engaged in over the course of the day (CTUR, 2013). However, in maintaining caution throughout this research in the interpretation of time use data, it was noted that any activity students reported undertaking, prior to drinking alcohol was not judged as necessarily the motivator to their drinking alcohol as a subsequent activity.

Table 8.5.1 reports the activities that students undertook immediately prior to drinking alcohol as their participation rate (i.e. the number of drinkers in that activity).

Table 8.5.1 Leisure activities reported prior to drinking alcohol

Activities recorded prior to drinking alcohol (participation rate %)	2012		2013	
	Main	Secondary	Main	Secondary
Getting ready	26.7	6.6	23.2	0.5
Travelling (not to/from University)	15.0	4.0	13.2	0.9
Chatting with friends	12.8	34.1	10.9	0.5
Eating	10.6	3.5	9.1	2.7
Watching TV/DVD	4.9	3.5	10.0	3.6
Going to a party	4.4	0.4	4.1	42.3
Going out for a drink	4.0	1.3	5.9	0.5
Studying/reading/writing up assignment	3.5	1.3	-	0.9
Society/club meeting	2.2	1.3	0.5	-
Lecture/Seminar/lab/formal timetabled session	1.8	1.8	0.5	0.9
Cooking/preparing meal	1.8	0.4	1.8	1.8
Video gaming	1.8	-	-	1.4
Listening to music (in home/car/on the move)	1.8	26.1	2.3	25
Going out for a meal	1.8	-	2.3	1.4
Other	1.3	1.8	3.2	0.9
Sleeping	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.5
Using Facebook/Twitter/other social network	0.9	4.9	0.5	5.0
Using the Internet (not social networking)	0.9	1.3	0.5	1.4
Shopping for pleasure	0.9	-	0.9	0.5
Travelling to/from University	0.4	0.4	-	1.4
Going to see a film/play/concert	0.4	0.4	-	0.5
Exercise/Sport/gym (inc University sport matches)	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.9
Day out (other than shopping for pleasure)	0.4	0.4	-	0.5
Drinking tea/coffee/juice	0.4	2.2	-	-
Shopping for necessities (groceries, etc.)	-	-	0.9	-
Working (paid)	-	-	2.7	-
Working (voluntary)	-	0.4	0.5	-
Downloading music/YouTube/iPlayer	-	0.4	-	0.5
Hobby (non-sporting)	-	0.4	0.5	-
Dancing	-	1.8	5.5	5.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Perhaps the most notable aspect of the findings from this data was the range of activities which student drinkers were doing before they recorded drinking alcohol. There were, nevertheless, some clear patterns in the data outlined above. The data revealed that getting ready while listening to music were the activities (main and secondary, respectively), which most students

undertook before they recorded drinking alcohol. This was followed by travelling somewhere as a main activity, which was a consistent finding in both 2012 and 2013. There was a somewhat surprising decline in the amount of time student drinkers spent chatting with their friends as a secondary activity before drinking alcohol and a notable decline in time spent at society or club meetings in 2013 compared with 2012. The use of digital media (using the internet and social networking), were activities which featured low down on the students activities before drinking. However, watching TV was a popular activity before drinking alcohol (see Table 8.5.1).

8.6 Location and drinking alcohol

Table 8.6.1 reports the number of students in various locations as a percentage (participation rate) while they were drinking alcohol, on a week-day and a weekend-day.

Table 8.6.1 Location of students while they were drinking alcohol in 2012 and 2013: week-day and weekend-day participation rates

Breakdown of drinking location (Participation rate %)	2012		2013	
	WD*	WE*	WD*	WE*
Night club	24.6	15.0	32.2	13.3
SU Bar	19.3	13.2	11.6	16
Pub/Bar	13.7	22.7	11.0	24.9
Uni common room (or Kitchen)	13.0	7.5	10.9	11.2
Friends home/room (off campus)	10.0	4.6	13.2	8.5
Friends home/room (on campus)	7.7	-	2.3	2.5
Uni own roon	6.2	1.3	8.6	7.8
Other	1.9	14.7	4.6	9.6
Café, restaurant	1.6	6.4	2.6	0.5
Parental home	-	6.4	0.3	1.6
Outside	1.1	-	1.8	1.4
Cinema, theatre, concert venue	-	1.7	-	1.6
Library	-	-	0.8	-
train	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
Missing	0.7	6.4	-	0.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

***Weekday or weekend (WD/WE)**

Table 8.6.1 shows the percentage of students in each location while they were drinking alcohol. There were some interesting patterns found in the data, and differences between a week-day and a weekend-day. For example, the data for week-days in 2012 showed that over 51.0 per cent of students were drinking off-campus, in nightclubs, pubs, clubs, cafés or restaurants or a friend's home. The remaining students were drinking in their university accommodation and the student's union bar which is either on, or adjacent to the main campus. The proportion of students drinking alcohol on-campus decreased markedly on a weekend-day to around 22.0 per cent, and students were drinking away from the campus at pubs, restaurants and their parent's homes.

The data for a week-day in 2013 showed that 34.2 per cent of students tended to spend their time on-campus while they were drinking alcohol, and 62.0 per cent were drinking off-campus. Moreover, there was a preference for students to use night clubs on a week-day compared with a weekend-day, which was a consistent finding in both 2012 and 2013. Pubs and bars were more likely to be a weekend-day venue for drinking alcohol, and this was also a consistent finding in both 2012 and 2013 (see Table 8.6.1).

8.7 Who students drink alcohol with

Table 8.7.1 shows the percentage of students who spent time with any category of accompanying person while they were drinking alcohol in 2012 and 2013, on a week-day and a weekend-day. Clearly the data reported here, specifically in the case of 'house-mates' is dependent on the students' term-time residential status and is an overall indication of drinking friends.

Table 8.7.1 People with students while they were drinking alcohol

Breakdown of people with student drinkers (Participation rate %)	2012		2013	
	WD*	WE*	WD*	WE*
Housemate	44.3	28.9	34.7	23.9
Other friend	37.9	52.1	53.5	68.6
Course-mate	15.3	6.6	9.3	1.8
Alone	1.6	2.7	2.4	5.5
Parent	0.2	5.7	0.1	0.2
Missing	0.7	4.0	-	-
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

***Weekday or weekend (WD/WE)**

The majority of students spent their time with housemates and 'other' friends while they were drinking alcohol, and this was clearly evident in the data in both 2012 and 2013. 'Other' friends included non-university course mates, friends they may have from other courses, partners and siblings.

The pattern of drinking time spent with their friends remained relatively consistent in 2013 compared with the 2012 data. However, it was noted that there was a decline in the proportion of students drinking with their house mates in 2013, compared with 2012. The data suggested that students chose to drink with their other friends more often, which may have accounted for this decline. Moreover, there was a decline in the proportion of students who spent time with their course mates accompanied by a slight increase in the proportion drinking alone in 2013 compared with 2012. Drinking time with a parent was mainly on a weekend-day for a small proportion of students, particularly in 2012 (see Table 8.7.1).

8.8 Drinking alcohol over 7 days (daily analysis)

Alcohol consumption varied over the seven day reference period, and this is illustrated in Figure 8.8.1 and Figure 8.8.2. The percentage of students who recorded drinking alcohol increased in their second year, and there were some notable fluctuations when the data were analyzed on an individual daily basis. For example, the most popular drinking days for first year students were found to be Monday, Wednesday and Friday, and this was aligned with the social calendar that was prevalent at the University.

Figure 8.8.1 Daily participation rates of students by day in 2012: sex differences

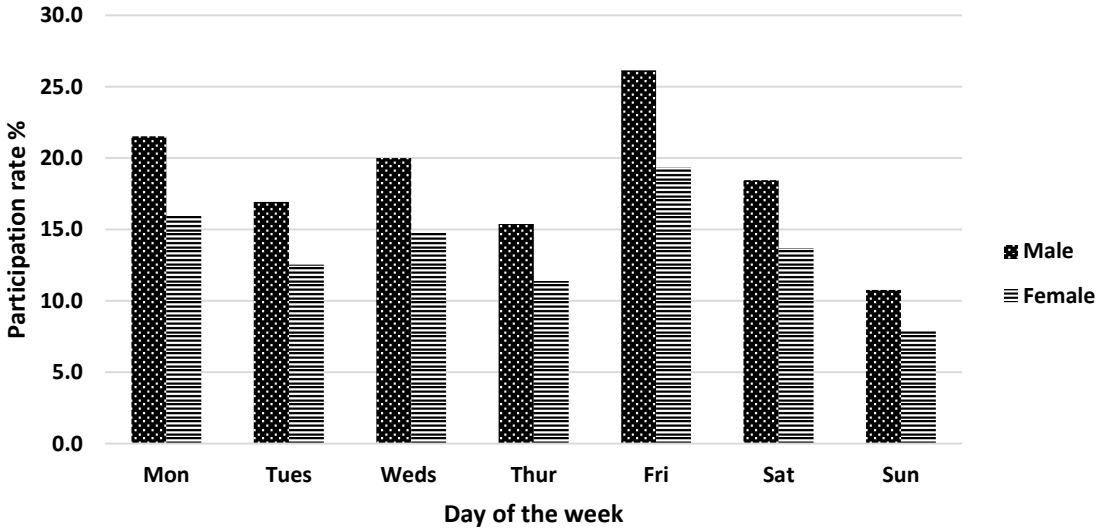
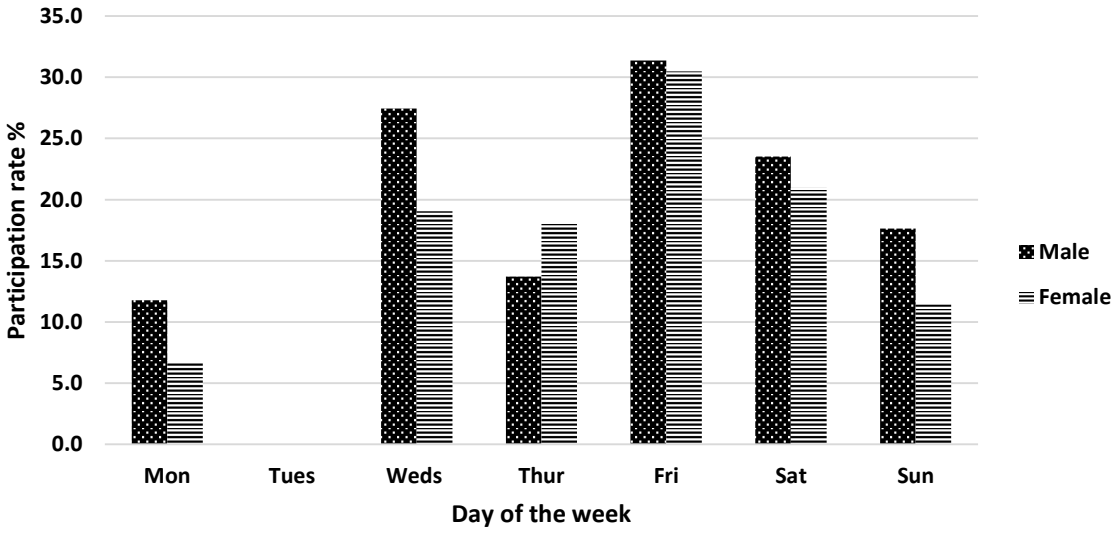


Figure 8.8.1 illustrates that week-days were more popular with student drinkers compared with the weekend. This was in part because many students, specifically NPH, tended to undertake some form of paid work and/or their university work over the weekend. In terms of the average time students spent drinking, there was a more varied pattern distributed across the week. For example, fewer drinkers reported drinking for longer on Saturday compared to Friday, where a larger number reported a similar, albeit slightly less amount of time on average drinking. Tuesday, Thursday and Sunday were less popular with the student drinkers, and those students who reported drinking alcohol on these days spent markedly less time on average drinking. The data for 2013 showed a similar pattern to that found in 2012 in terms of which days were most popular amongst the students, with the exception of Monday and Tuesday, which showed a marked decline in the numbers of drinkers. Moreover, the amount of time that student

drinkers spent drinking was also reflected in this analysis. Therefore, the days where most students reported drinking, were also the days on which they spent longer drinking on average. These points notwithstanding, a greater proportion of males spent time drinking compared with females, which remained a consistent finding in both first and second year (see Figure 8.8.1 and Figure 8.8.2).

Figure 8.8.2 Daily participation rates of students in 2013: sex differences



8.9 Summary of the main findings presented in Chapters 4 – 8

Overall there were a number of key findings that are summarized below in order to clarify how students spent their time. The three main areas of time use are summarized in the following order: (i) overall time use; (ii) leisure time use; and, (iii) time spent drinking alcohol.

First, in terms of their overall time use, first year students tended to spend most of their time either sleeping or on leisure over the seven days. Perhaps surprisingly, they spent around 4 hours on average on week-days doing university-related course work, and less on weekend-days. Sub-group analysis showed the greatest differences in both participation and actual time spent doing activities were based on sex, and to a greater extent, term-time residence.

In the second year, the relationship between categories of time use remained stable over time. However, there was an increase in the time students spent sleeping. Moreover, there was an increase in the time spent doing paid work, particularly, among the females and NPH students – the greatest differences remained in these two sub-groups – and, a decline in the time spent doing course work. The biggest change was an overall decline in time spent doing leisure activities, which was consistent for all sub-groups of students.

In terms of leisure, first year students tended to spend most of their time doing screen-based activities and socializing with their friends. Notwithstanding, some overlap between these two categories of time use, watching TV and chatting with their friends were activities in which both participation was greatest and in which students spent the most time on average. Interestingly, both these activities were relatively evenly distributed across the day, and evening. As with overall time use, the pattern

of leisure activities differed in relation to sex and term-time residential sub-groups.

There was an overall decline in the time spent doing leisure activities in the second year, mainly due to the increase in time spent working. This decline was most evident in socializing activities, specifically, going out and in physical activity. Students tended to spend more of their leisure time watching TV and socializing with their friends indoors. This was most evident among NPH students.

Finally, drinking alcohol was a popular means of socializing for a majority of first year students, and this remained the case in their second year. Indeed, the time spent drinking increased in the second year, specifically, among males and NPH students. Moreover, males were more likely to record their time spent drinking alcohol as their main activity, compared with females, who tended to drink as a secondary activity. Drinking alcohol remained a social activity, although in the second year, students tended to drink with their friends indoors, particularly NPH students.

The following chapter outlines the findings from the focus groups in 2012 and explores the students' own explanations of their time use.

Chapter 9

Students in their social networks: focus group findings

9.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from data that were generated during focus groups in 2012. Focus groups were judged to be the most appropriate method to uncover the underlying social process (Bloor et al., 2001; Bryman, 2012; Gray, 2005; Kitzinger, 1995; Punch, 2005), that might help explain the patterns in the quantitative data about how students spend their time, particularly their leisure time, and especially in relation to alcohol. The chapter begins with a description of the participants.

9.2 Focus group participants

In total, there were 39 students who agreed to participate in a focus group in 2012. Their characteristics in terms of sex, age, term-time residence and family HE history are illustrated in Table 9.2.1.

Table 9.2.1 Characteristics of focus group participants in 2012

		N	%
Sex			
	Males	14	48.3
	Females	15	51.7
Age (years)			
	18	11	37.9
	19	16	55.2
	20 and over	2	6.9
Term-time residence			
	Parental home	7	24.1
	Non-parental home	22	75.9
Family HE history			
	First generation	17	58.6
	Second generation	12	41.4

Table 9.2.1 shows that the characteristics of the focus group participants are broadly reflective of the panel.

9.3 Analysis and categorization

In order to maintain both a close link with the data and a coherent story of the students' experiences throughout this chapter, the findings were analyzed and subsequently categorized into the following headings as the most relevant to the central research objective of the study in accounting for students' leisure time. First, the headings used were direct quotations from the students and represented areas of leisure which were the most salient with the students including: 'just chilling really'; 'sleep too much'; 'more nights out'; 'drinking alcohol' and 'being a first year'.

Throughout the focus groups, a number of recurring themes were identified as students accounted for their leisure time. For example, social processes and other factors which may have shaped students' time use and influenced their leisure activities, or who they undertook these activities with. The themes presented in these findings impart a detailed and valid understanding of students' experiences of their leisure lives, through their own words.

In keeping with a qualitative approach, quotations are used to illustrate themes. Where direct quotations were used, they were given a code for student anonymity. Each student code comprised four separate references to the student's demographic characteristics, i.e. sex, age, term-time residence and family HE history. Two examples of the codes used throughout the findings are shown below:

> Example 1: Male student, 18 years of age, living at home and first generation - Coded as M18/PH1

> Example 2: Female student, 21 years of age, living on-campus and second generation - Coded as F21/NPH2

9.4 Transition to university

Overall, the responses from the focus groups indicated that students' transition to university involved degrees of continuity alongside change. In terms of change, many students observed how their sleeping patterns had changed since starting university. In addition, they spent more time

socializing with new friends, as well as 'chilling out', both with friends and alone.

Drinking alcohol played a significant part in socializing – whether 'at home' (typically theirs or a friend's accommodation), or 'out'. It was noteworthy how very many of the students viewed these aspects of their transition to university as 'being a first year' university student. The following sections explore these aspects of students' transition to university in more depth.

9.5 "Just chilling really"

Students frequently used the term 'chilling out' and it encapsulated many leisure activities in students' accounts of their time use, such as relaxing on their own in their room, watching TV or DVDs with friends, drinking a beer and chatting, social networking, or wandering into the city centre window shopping, either alone or with friends. The way in which they tended to use the term 'chilling' in relation to these activities and contexts suggested that they were motivated by a desire to relax, and/or pass the time with other people and friends and peers in particular. In this context, it was noteworthy how often students expressed an increased sense of laziness since they started university, often referring to themselves as 'being lazy' and the aforementioned activities as akin to 'doing nothing'.

All told, students clearly enjoyed the company of their friends, although they were both surprised and seemingly concerned by the amount of time the

time use diaries revealed they spent on activities they considered to be 'chilling out'. As one student said:

> I don't know, because they all feel morally very low, whatever I do just feels like I shouldn't, erm, I mean, I don't know. Have you had other students doing these things? Because it's like, I'm doing nothing for six hours in bed at night thinking, "What can I do? You know, I don't want to go out." So we end up just like, chilling in one person's room so we are social in that aspect, and then we put the TV on. (M18/NPH1)

There were little or no discernible differences between males and females in their experiences of these 'chilling' activities. There were, nevertheless, more references to 'chilling out' among students who lived away during term-time (NPH). It seems plausible to suggest that this may, in part, be attributed to the amount of additional time among PH students taken up by commuting to and from university and paid work.

In addition, NPH students had a new group of housemates to interact with, and they frequently expressed a sense of imperative in both establishing and strengthening bonds with their new housemates. They described achieving this by simply spending time with these new housemates, especially time on specific activities such as chatting, watching TV together or going for a walk into town. One student highlighted the importance of socializing through chatting and said:

> I mean it is a good way of getting to know people isn't it. Maybe it is for that reason but it's a good thing, socializing is important when you're away from home I think. It's like networking. (M19/NPH2)

When asked about their favourite single leisure activity, it was noticeable that what they said and what they did tended to be quite different. Students tended to describe socializing with their friends as their preferred activity. However, the time use data showed that after sleeping, it was the activities that constituted screen-time in which they spent most of their time. The majority of this was spent watching TV or DVDs and using Facebook. It is of course, quite likely that some, even much, of their screen time included socializing.

In terms of watching TV or DVDs, students took the view that the amount of time they spent viewing was, more or less, as it had been prior to starting university, a time when they watched a lot of TV. When 'chilling' or socializing, NPH students in particular, tended to watch TV or DVDs with their housemates. As one female student explained:

> I think, say if you were to watch a film at home, you'd have to, you'd either watch it on your own because you would struggle to find a film that caters for the whole family, whereas if you're at uni, if you're with the same bunch of people that you're friends with, you can all watch the same films. (F18/NPH2)

For PH students, watching TV or DVDs meant either planning to go to a friend's home or having friends around, because of the presence of their parents.

Notwithstanding the University making no provision for TV reception (via external aerials or satellite dishes), for example in student accommodation, NPH students tended to spend more of their leisure time watching TV or DVDs than their PH counterparts. Furthermore, TV licensing regulations had little or no constraint on students viewing. Those who did not possess a TV license simply watched 'on demand TV' from Internet resources such as BBC 'iPlayer', or '4oD'. The internet was a popular gateway for students to gain access to movies and their favourite TV programmes. Indeed, movie nights would often become a regular indoor social event, particularly at weekends when students might watch box sets of their favourite TV programmes or movies:

> Like you tend to watch like a whole series of programmes, don't you? I love Family guy! (laughter). (F18/NPH1)

> Yeah, but the programmes are worse here because, like, at home you had like your favourite things to watch and here, because you've watched all your favourite things you end up going on to stupid things like, you know, I've married the Eiffel Tower, things like that. (F18/NPH2)

In terms of social media, students tended to use Facebook. While there were references to Twitter, Facebook was where students spent the majority of their social networking time. Indeed, they often enthusiastically expressed affection for Facebook. A number of students referred to 'being addicted' and described the amount of time they spent on Facebook was 'a problem' in some cases. Time spent using Facebook was intermittent throughout the day and night, and students described frequently checking their news feeds to keep up with what their friends were doing. Students described their use of Facebook, and, to a lesser extent Twitter, as deeply embedded in their daily lives. They tended to interact with Facebook via the App on their smartphones and/or would run it in the background (utilizing a spare Internet browser tab) while they worked on their computers, as one male student described:

> You just sort of have it on in the background, sort of, it's like instead of having background noise, you have Facebook just as like a background tab, just there. Like you'll be doing something else but Facebook's always just sort of there. (M18/NPH2)

Students used Facebook to 'friend' fellow course-mates, and most faculties and departments at the University had their own Facebook profile and Twitter links. Students readily exchanged their Facebook profiles and 'friended' each other even before their first term commenced, specifically NPH students. They achieved this through the University accommodation department. This department administered 'closed' Facebook groups specific to each accommodation block or houses to encourage students to network

prior to the commencement of term, and to monitor situations in student accommodation as their first year progressed. To this extent, NPH students could either seek permission from the University accommodation administrator to join their specific accommodation Facebook group. PH students tended to 'friend' their course mates once they had bonded with them at some point during the first term. Students also tended to form their own Facebook groups in the format of 'yearbooks', specific to their courses and/or their specific university accommodation, before they started their courses (such as a group of first year girls who created a Facebook group called 'The 49ers' based on the front door number of their university accommodation address). Moreover, while the University provided students with email accounts and access to an on-line portal where they could access course materials, interact with lecturers, and other course mates via on-line blogs specific to each course program, students more typically preferred to use Facebook. One younger female student said:

> My course has got a Facebook page, like a group full of everyone on the thing and if you're struggling with an assignment you can pop up, ask a question, and then everyone on your course can see it immediately and help you out and you wouldn't be able to do that without Facebook, you'd have to text around saying 'Can you help me?' It's just easier, having a Facebook group. (F18/PH1)

PH students tended to spend more time using Facebook than NPH students, and this was reflected in their diary data, and developed in the focus groups. Facebook was the primary means they kept in touch with their new course

mates at the University when they were at home. The PH students' sense of 'missing out' on some of the social aspects of university life was mitigated by Facebook to some extent. As one female PH student said:

> I do it on the bus because I get the bus in and out, and like, living at home, I think that's why I check it so often as well, because you don't want to feel like you're missing out on something that everyone else is doing because you haven't checked on it or you haven't been on it. (F18/PH1)

Finally, 'going into town' either alone or with their friends, including shopping for pleasure as a means of relaxing or 'chilling out' was particularly popular among students. This was a distinct experience from the more mundane shopping for groceries and there was often no purpose other than to wander around the city center window-shopping. This was reflected in the time use data for many students, regardless of their sex or term-time residence. When asked to account for shopping for pleasure in the focus groups, they suggested that their course timetables were fragmented, which afforded them breaks throughout the day. Some students took advantage of these breaks between lectures to relax, for example, by going for a walk into the city center (a 10 minute walk away from the main campus). This was also a means to spend social time with their new course mates. There was a sense of 'filling time' between lectures, so at times these usually short outings might become more protracted if there was no immediate necessity to return for lectures or seminars:

> But I think, again, being with people, not necessarily going out, just like, I dunno, being in town or just, every-day-wander. You'd like, go into town for, like, half an hour to get some, like, food and stuff and it would end up being like a three hour journey, like, just roaming round, spending money and then, say, going to McDonalds and then you don't even really want a McDonalds, you just go. (M18/NPH2)

9.6 Sleeping too much

Sleeping was frequently viewed by students as a leisure activity, and this was reflected, indirectly, in the quantitative findings from the time use diaries. In other words, sleeping was not solely a necessary night-time rest period. Indeed, students often reported sleeping sporadically throughout the day, frequently using their time between lectures and other activities to catch up on sleep. Students suggested this was a 'shift' in their sleeping patterns from before they started their university course, and was directly related to the 'change' in their day-to-day 'routine' since starting university. NPH students tended to express a greater emphasis on change, not only to their sleeping patterns, but in many aspects of their daily lives including their other leisure activities and eating regimes. The three most significant influences on their sleeping patterns according to students were: (i) being away from their home and the change in the level of parental surveillance that accompanied this (in the case of NPH students); (ii) living with new housemates; and, (iii) a seemingly more fragmented course timetable in comparison to that which they had been used to at schools, colleges or workplaces. One male student explicitly expressed a combination of two of

these factors as influences in how and when he might, or might not choose to sleep, during the day in question:

> It's harder to make a routine. I mean, like coming from A' levels your routine is, 'erm, up before nine, got to catch a train into Sheffield like, and then you're back around five and that was your routine and what not. And, 'erm, my sleeping was much better then, because I mean despite just going to bed after twelve anyway but like, you're sleeping within the same hours. Like here, if you had a lecture at one in the afternoon, and with the new degrees of freedom, and there's no parents around, you find yourself sleeping until like half twelve and then dragging yourself out of bed to your lecture at one. (M19/NPH1)

These experiences were apparent in the narratives of other NPH students living away from home during term-time. Whilst some spoke of the same combination of factors (less parental surveillance, influence of friends and timetabling of lectures), others placed more emphasis on one or other of these factors as an influence on their day-to-day routine. Ultimately, one or more of these factors influenced the time they spent sleeping and when they chose to sleep. Perhaps unsurprisingly, these aspects of the transition to student life seemed to be more apparent in the discourse of NPH students, although, the fragmented timetabling aspect of change in their daily routine did not go unnoticed among PH students. One student living with his parents noted:

> I think as the dynamic of the week has changed, because with like A levels and school you had to be up every morning at nine whereas, 'erm, now sometimes you have a day where you don't go in at all and other days you only go in at one or something. (M22/PH1)

Both male and female students spoke of similar experiences in this aspect of transition to university. The focus groups revealed their changing routines and structure and how they planned their time. However, there were some variations in the experience of transition based on the age of students. The majority of younger (18-19 years) first year students (in 2012) viewed their fragmented course timetables less favourably in comparison with their previous school and further education regimes. These younger students spoke of having too much time on their hands, leading to feeling bored, and a sense of having to pass the time away. This meant that time was filled with activities they might not have particularly chosen to do in their pre-university, more structured lives. As a consequence, they would simply sleep more often, and for longer periods. One of the male students said:

> I found that at the beginning of the year, because I was so used to waking up at half seven every single morning to get into sixth form for nine, that in the first couple of weeks of Uni I'd wake up ridiculously early, and then I'd look at my timetable and have nothing until eleven, twelve, one-ish and then I'd think to myself 'What am I going to do with all this spare time?' So I just found myself like sleeping in the day, killing time basically, doing rubbish! (M18/NPH1)

Students' experiences of their course timetable varied, however. Students in the age group (20 years and over) tended to express a more positive view of having more time during their daily lives. Older students tended to be more adept in planning their time around the university course timetable. One older female student, for example, compared her experience of her university course timetable with her previous background in paid employment and expressed a more positive experience of she had utilized an increased level of planning in managing this 'spare' time around her course timetable:

> I was gonna say the opposite, that I plan my time more here because at home, like, I've gone from having, like, a nine to five job and that was what I was doing everyday but then here, like, you've got to go into classes and then I've got to, like, organise when I'm going to start getting ready to go to that place. And then I do rowing so then it's like when I have time, I'm going to go there and sometimes I find myself, like, 'Oh my god, like, I've got to do this and this and this and this'. So I plan my time more than at home. (F21/NPH1)

Being a university student meant living away from the parental home for the majority of first year students in this study, and a number of these said it was their first experience of living away from home. The majority of NPH students were living in university accommodation - either on or adjacent to the University campus - with other first year students. Students referred to people they lived with as their housemates or their friends with little distinction between the two. Their comments frequently referred to how their sleeping patterns had changed because of the new living arrangements they

were in. Going to bed at night was often delayed compared with their previous routine, and this was explained in terms of social interactions in their accommodation, including wanting not to 'miss out' on social activities in the house. Moreover, students suggested they would rather stay up with their housemates, implying that 'going to bed' was sometimes a group decision, as one young male student explained:

> So, I don't bother going up, it just seems like, if I'm still awake, like, at say, like eleven o'clock or something where normally I would have just gone to bed, if some of the other people are still up in the house, rather than just going to sleep I'll, like, go and sort of like socialize with them until sort of everyone decides that they're going to go to bed. (M18/NPH2)

NPH students generally viewed sharing accommodation with new housemates as both novel and exciting when they discussed their experiences of their current living arrangements to life before university. Both male and female students expressed similar views on the pros and cons of sharing accommodation, in terms of the benefits of increased sociability and enjoying themselves, balanced with the downside of noise and increased disruption to sleep. Noisy housemates tended to be viewed as the cause of disrupted sleep, and this line of discourse was frequently accompanied by the 'nodding of heads' of other students in the focus groups, in agreement. One young female student explained it thus:

> But then again, sleeps more disrupted. I have two very rowdy housemates and you can guarantee Wednesday nights and Friday nights, ear plugs in because… it is maybe you can sleep for longer, like you can sleep in for longer but it's still… I mean I've learnt to sleep through it now, pretty much, but at the start of the year I'd lie awake, listening to what was going on, because you're a bit nervous when you first move in. (F18/NPH2)

NPH students tended to think that not living with their parents had influenced their sleeping patterns since starting at university. When the students reflected on their home life prior to starting university, they viewed the routine and/or timing of 'going to bed' at night and subsequently 'getting up' the following morning as frequently driven by the norms of their parental home. These norms or 'house rules' tended to be sanctioned by parents. Moreover, this remained the case when they returned home at weekends or during term holidays. NPH students spoke of how they had 'missed' home at first, and, when they visited their parental home during term breaks or holidays they 'missed' their new found freedoms to 'lie in' and sleep when they chose. This view of parental surveillance influencing sleeping patterns was particularly evident in the narratives of NPH students, and they often took advantage of this freedom from parents to do what they wanted to do. In many cases, this was catching up on additional sleep, as one female student said:

> I think it's actually, usually, parents give you a bit of a kick if you're lazing around too much. Like, I know if I was at home I could not

> sleep until 12 o' clock. My mum would have been getting me up and making me do things, usually things that I don't want to do. (F18/NPH1)

PH students were subject to the same fragmented course timetables as their NPH peers, and to this extent, they too gained additional time in their daily lives. Perhaps unsurprisingly, PH students did not speak of the same experiences in relation to their sleeping patterns. While they acknowledged the fragmented course timetable compared with previous schools, colleges or workplaces, they experienced little or no change in their living circumstances, and were evidently less influenced by the same social experiences expressed by the NPH students.

The majority of PH students said that parental surveillance continued to influence their sleeping patterns since starting at university. This too was largely established through both the norms of the parental home, and at times through being bored. PH students suggested there was little or nothing to do after 9 pm in the evenings, specifically on week-days. They would refer to their parents as 'always in the front room, sitting around watching TV' (M18/PH1), so students felt they might just as well go to bed where they had some control over their space.

It was evident in the quantitative data that there was a further distinction between PH and NPH students with regard to how paid employment influenced sleeping patterns. Unlike NPH students, the majority of PH students in this sample were in paid employment of some kind. This was

generally part-time and consisted of between 6 hours per week to some 30 hours per week, which they managed around their university courses. Ultimately, this gave rise to a combination of influences on the amount of time they might actually choose to sleep, and constrained when they might have the time to sleep because they had less spare time combined with more parental surveillance:

> I've had a job since I was 16 like, and like my parents get me up every morning at the same time. Like, even when I've got no work and a lecture at one, they still get me up. (M18/PH1)

9.7 Going out, and going 'out-out' with friends

This was a recurring theme in students' narratives during all the focus groups. A night out with friends tended to include the consumption of alcohol. The distinction between 'going out' and 'going out-out' was noted in students' accounts of an evening out that involved alcohol consumption. In essence, 'going out-out' tended to mean a night out drinking that would be more likely to feature determined drunkenness, whereas 'going out' tended to reflect connotations some restraint in regard of drinking alcohol.

Since coming to university, students' patterns of leisure included more time going out to socialize, and they offered several reasons for this. First, students had a number of pre-conceived expectations about going to university, which involved going out socializing, as an integral part of student life. Indeed, for some students this aspect of university life was part of their decision-making process in where they chose to study and formed part of

the attraction of becoming a university student. Pre-conceptions about this aspect of student life were generally formed through word-of-mouth contact with their friends (who had already gone to university) and, in some cases, family members with university experience. Students also spoke of the influence of mainstream media in conveying a stereotypical view of student life at university. This was mainly through social media websites such as Facebook and Twitter, although students also referred to specific organizations with specialized websites such as Carnage UK, which were concerned with the organization of large-scale party events across the UK network of universities. One student when asked where he had heard what life was like as a student said:

> It's just from, like, word of mouth and, like, media and everything like that everyone knows what it's like. (M18/NPH1)

For some students, these pre-conceptions were confirmed when they started at university and began to integrate with the wider student population. This was one aspect of the transition to university life that was significantly influenced by the term-time residential status of students. In other words, NPH students were inevitably more deeply immersed in these processes because of their new living contexts, proximity to the campus and other students compared with PH students, who would typically travel into university on a day-to-day basis depending on their course timetable. Moreover, those NPH students who resided in university's accommodation had access to their rooms from the weekend immediately prior to induction week, which they tended to take advantage of to meet fellow first years, at

the various events such as the 'Freshers' fair'. For all first year students, this was a period of registration and induction prior to the commencement of teaching. Running alongside the formal University induction period, there was an organized social calendar of events that collectively form what had become known as 'Freshers' week'. The Student Union and various University societies organized and ran these social events during 'Freshers' week' recruiting new students to their societies and exchanging general information on student life at the University. The importance of this week to new first year students and the pre-planning in terms of 'being prepared' to go out socializing, specifically during induction week was summed up by one female student who said:

> Yeah, I saved money before I came because all my friends that are like a year older were like, "Oh, you need to save up for Freshers' week, it's going to cost you", so I saved up a load of money before I came and then just spent all of that in Freshers' on like going out in fancy dress and vodka. (F18/NPH2)

Second, students suggested that their proximity to the city center and places to go influenced their 'going out'. The main campus - where most first year student accommodation was situated - was adjacent to the city center, with the main night time economy (NTE) being approximately 5-10 minutes' walk. This meant that for NPH students there was relatively easy access to a setting that was both novel and attuned to the expectations of a large student population within a small city. There was also an SU on the main campus which organized a busy timetable of daily social events throughout

term-time, specifically in the evenings, although the student bar was open from midday, every day. The SU was situated in a central position on the main campus, and amenities available to all students included: a subsidized bar, licensed to serve alcohol and food; pool tables; function room; Starbucks coffee concession with lounge area; convenience store and a cashpoint machine. Students could access a variety of SU organized events seven days a week, travel into town on specific student oriented nights or combine the two. An example of the students' social calendar is shown in Appendix 9. The influence and proximity to both the NTE and SU was a recurring theme in the narratives of NPH students, in which they described how this represented a change from the norms of their previous social lives:

> A lot more nights out at university than when I was at home, I don't know whether that's because I live closer to the town, because at home I was like nowhere near a good night out spot. You can end up going sort of three, four even seven nights a week. (M18/NPH2)

PH students expressed different views of their experiences regardless of the proximity of their homes to the University. Some PH students lived in the city or nearby, and would travel in by car or public transport. Those students who lived furthest away and commuted by car, said they preferred not to go out during the week with new university friends. Driving home was viewed as a constraint on their going out, specifically in terms of going out after lectures. However, for PH students who used public transport and did not drive, travelling home was still a constraint on going out socializing with their new friends during the week. This was mainly because of train or bus

timetables curtailing their night out before they might want to go home. Some PH students did go out on a 'student night' during the week, but they said they had to plan around this and would usually 'crash' at a course mate's house, either on, or near campus. There seemed to be less spontaneity in 'going out' among PH students, and they were more typically inclined to 'go out' at the weekend. What PH students generally spoke of was their tendency to go home after their lectures had finished. Indeed, when they did 'go out' on a week-day, they tended to 'go out' with their existing network of friends from home:

> I think it is because it is, like, I wouldn't stay out here because I have to get the bus and that, and the bus is, like, at rubbish times. You couldn't stay out 'til, like, nine … because you can't even get the bus home. So it's, like, you might as well just go home and go out with your mates at home. (M18/PH1)

Students also spoke of how their friends influenced the frequency of their socializing with friends being described as the strongest influence on how often they went out. The influence of friends was interwoven with their proximity to physical settings like the NTE and SU social events on campus. However, meeting new friends also gave rise to new and exciting social contexts. When their courses commenced, students were keen to meet fellow students, although PH students generally kept the same friendship groups they had before they started their university course. Time for them to meet up with fellow students tended to be concentrated around the time they were on the University campus, and chatting with their course-mates

between lectures. Therefore, they would go out to socialize mainly at the weekends with their existing friends from home or work:

> Well, girls at Uni, 'erm, they go out like, on a student night on a Monday and stuff whereas my mates back home which go out more at the weekends, so I'll go out weekends with them like. (F18/PH1)

As the term progressed, PH students would go out on occasion with their course mates during the week, although this tended to be less frequently than NPH students. Once they had got to know their course mates better, they could plan their night out, which might involve staying over with their friend/s in University accommodation.

To this extent, NPH students spent far more of their time with fellow students, and spoke of a rapid expansion of their friendship groups and networks. They got to know their course mates and housemates quickly, because they spent long periods of time together. Moreover, their proximity to large numbers of new friends meant the same level of planning for a night out was not necessary and their socializing could be more spontaneous. This was reflected in the quantitative findings, which showed, that considerably more NPH students recorded time spent in leisure activities which involved going out with friends during the week compared with their PH colleagues. Evident throughout NPH student narratives was how they became more selective in 'going out' with other students in and around their friendship groups as the term progressed. For example, during the first few weeks of their time at university, they were keen to make as many friends as they

could. However, this process became more selective and students were more discerning about whom they preferred to go out with:

> Yer, I've come here knowing no one, like most people, and like, you start off every night, you go out with the people you're living with and slowly that's changed within our house to like, now it's only me and another four lads who stay together and we don't really want others to go out. You know it's forming your cliques, your groups within what you've been put with. (M18/NPH1)

9.8 Drinking alcohol

Drinking alcohol was a recurring theme in the narratives of students, and was both a leisure activity *per se*, and a frequent accompaniment to other leisure activities. Drinking alcohol was viewed by students as synonymous with a student identity, and, in this context, was referred to as a central feature in their preconceptions and expectations of what life at university was about. Because of the way drinking alcohol was intertwined with various leisure activities and social contexts, it warrants a separate heading. For most students, going out socializing implied drinking alcohol. Similarly, drinking alcohol was often a part of staying in with friends, particularly housemates in the case of NPH students. PH students, on the other hand, preferred going out to pubs for a drink, mainly because of reduced parental surveillance.

NPH students, on the other hand, were far more likely to stay in to drink alcohol (particularly as a pre-cursor for a night 'out' or, indeed, a night 'out-out' and there were several reasons for these preferences. First, NPH students living in shared accommodation described the value they placed on their bonds with new housemates. Some likened their housemates to a second family. For most NPH students, living away from home was a novel experience. They enjoyed 'hanging out' with their new friends, and, drinking alcohol was an important social lubricant in the process of getting to know each other – forming and maintaining bonds. Drinking alcohol with their housemates facilitated a bonding experience that was unique to their specific accommodation, and students valued this. For some, the experience could alter their predispositions. For example, this male student expressed how, he now preferred staying in with his new housemates compared with going out:

> I think the things that's changed the most is, I don't know, probably going out, I probably don't go out as much because everybody's already like, all my housemates are with me all the time and there's seven of us in the house so we just drink inside and stuff, and watch films and something. Yeah, everyone's on the same wavelength. (M18/NPH2)

Second, some students expressed a sense of peer pressure to drink alcohol, or at least to drink more, and more frequently than they normally would. This was particularly notable in the views of male NPH students. For example, drinking games were a common aspect of students' pre-loading

alcohol as a prelude to going out, and some students felt obliged to go along with the majority. This was less common among female students who tended to spend less time drinking alcohol than males generally. The time use diaries captured this in the participation rates for drinking alcohol of male and female students. Male students were more likely to drink, and would also be more likely to record their drinking as their main activity, whereas there were fewer female drinkers, and these were more likely to record drinking alcohol as a secondary activity. This is not to say that female drinkers were any less enthusiastic than males in discussing their alcohol-related exploits while drinking alcohol with their friends. They simply tended not to express peer pressure as an influence for drinking alcohol or drunkenness. In terms of feeling pressured to drink more than he might normally, one male student said:

> Peer pressure, isn't it? Literally I've been out before and said like 'I'll just have a couple and I'll go, like, just go to Off the Wall'. I can't think of a time when I've actually stuck to it and not ended up in Club A or Club B. Literally, you can't have a couple. Once you've had a couple then you speak to other people and that, "Oh, are you coming?" and someone else asks you and it's just like 'I've got a spare fiver, I might as well just go'. It's just more peer pressure. (M18/NPH1)

Finally, there was a sense of increased access to what students described as 'cheap' alcohol and they took advantage of this on different levels. For example, some NPH students were especially keen to express their prowess

at saving money when they purchased what was, to them, cheap alcohol. Moreover, going to a shop and buying alcohol was one more of the social things NPH students did with their housemates, although they sometimes felt, upon reflection, that they got 'carried away':

> Like, between the four of us yesterday, we went shopping and we spent £122, which is food, and that will last us probably until the end of May, but in that was, 'erm, £50 worth of alcohol. Then we were coming back yesterday, we were thinking about it and going 'Why have we spent all this money?' You know, this money could be used for so much other stuff. Since Christmas, I've not gone a day, I don't think, without having a drink. (M18/NPH2)

When asked to elaborate more on the proportion of their grocery bill they spent on alcohol, they said the main reason was cost. Alcohol purchased from a supermarket was often less than one third the cost of alcohol purchased in a licensed pub, bar or nightclub, and this was important to NPH students who particularly felt they were constrained financially with the costs of living away, with regard to accommodation and food. One of their strategies they deployed to mitigate their sense of financial constraint was stockpiling their 'cheap' alcohol in preparation for student night out or 'going out' drinking with their friends. Pre-loading alcohol was an integral part of their night drinking with friends. They might play drinking games, or just chat while they were 'getting ready' for the night out. Indeed, it was often late in the evening before they ventured out into the NTE.

Despite the impression that drinking alcohol was an all pervasive aspect NPH students' lives, most were quite 'strategic' in their drinking, specifically to save money. For example, they expressed a relatively high level of exuberance in the focus groups, when they spoke of house parties and pre-loading before a night out (which they referred to as pre-drinking). However, pre-loading in particular was a strategy that attracted both an obvious economic benefit and an additional social benefit from the students' perspectives. Some students simply preferred to be intoxicated (to various degrees) when they arrived at the venue or event:

> Because you go to a supermarket and buy say, twenty four cans of beer for £12 as opposed to going to the pub and then paying £2-£3 for a pint, so it's far cheaper to go to the supermarket to buy all the drink to pre-drink, to drink before you go out. So by the time you go out, one, you don't feel the cold because you're already drunk and two, you're already part way there so you have to spend less when you're out. (M18/NPH1)

PH students tended to continue with the same social routines they had before starting university. They would meet up with their existing friends from home and 'go out' drinking with them at the weekends. The weekend was viewed as not such a good time for students to 'go out' into town generally, because the weekend NTE was more oriented towards non-students (locals), and drinks tended to be more expensive. Moreover, the majority of PH students did some form of paid work during the week that they had to

manage around their university timetable, so were subsequently constrained by less time and more early starts to their week-days.

However, they valued the benefit of wages to spend at the weekend. To this extent, they would tend to 'go out' less on 'student nights', and were more likely to 'go out' at the weekend, with their friends. One upshot PH students spoke of in terms of 'student nights', was, they felt like they missed out on this aspect of university life at the start of their first year, and felt they had to limit themselves to being sociable while not drinking alcohol. As this female put it:

> I will go to the pub to socialize with people from my lectures, but I would, 'erm, just have a coke or fruit juice or something. (F18/PH1)

However, as the first term progressed, PH students made friends with fellow students from their courses who would sometimes let them stay- over in their university accommodation. So, for some PH students, their sense of 'missing out' was delayed until their expanding networks of friends included a fellow NPH student. Then would take part in a midweek 'night out'. These bonds between course mates tended to feature as the term progressed, and took longer to develop than bonds between housemates, which developed quickly in the early part of the first term.

9.9 Being a first year

Students were asked to reflect on their first year at university to date, and their transition to being a first year student. The prominent theme that

emerged from the focus groups was that NPH students experienced comparatively more change in their leisure lives than those of PH students. The experiences some NPH students spoke of in regard to leaving home to study alluded to not solely the acquisition of a degree. It was about them leaving home for the first time, making decisions for themselves, controlling their own space and meeting new friends.

Indeed, in terms of their course workload students suggested that their courses took an unanticipated amount of time to get going - there was not much in the way of assignments to do - and that, few hours of timetabled lectures over a week resulted in them having more time on their hands than they had anticipated based on their previous experiences of A levels or employment. There was a sense that for NPH students this additional time almost knocked them off kilter and they did not know how to fill the time. The upshot for some, led to them 'doing rubbish' (M18/NPH2) as one student said in his account of why he slept more often through the day. One related theme that emerged associated with first year workload and students' expectations was a sense that what they did in their first year did not matter in their final degree classification. For example, there was a 40 per cent requirement to pass their course modules, and although none of them had experienced an end of year exam at university, some seemingly took a more relaxed view to their workload:

> I Probably haven't put as much effort into this year as I could have done and I haven't come out with bad grades, not fantastic, but 'erm, next year I think there will be a lot more emphasis on, 'erm, doing

> University work but as far as, like, going out and socializing, I don't think that will really change, I just reckon I'll probably like, like I said, maybe a little bit less socializing and less sort of like playing on the X-Box and, you know, on the internet and that sort of thing and probably more emphasis on doing work. (M18/NPH2)

Of course, there were students who expressed a different view, and had a more conscientious approach to their work during their first year. Moreover, there were students in nursing and teaching who had assessed work placements to contend with (across the region), and this also constrained their propensity to 'go out' big student nights. These professional NPH students tended to socialize with each other in their accommodation, and also might go out on a weekend, because they had a demanding timetable more akin to full-time employment. Some students said their course lecturers were taking an attendance register at lectures to combat poor attendance during the first year.

For PH students there was less change to their leisure lives overall. There was a sense that they viewed their experience of university as akin to having a job. Indeed, most of them did have a job, which they had to manage around their courses. What was apparent during the focus groups was a sense that some felt they were 'missing out' on some social aspects of student life, and to this extent their leisure lives remained more unchanged.

Overall, students were keen to spend time with their new friends, and starting a university course expanded their friendship networks considerably. This process tended to be more rapid in the case of NPH students, who felt the time they spent with their housemates was something they valued. They viewed their new housemates as friends and formed close bonds, unique to their accommodation. Indeed, students suggested these bonds resembled familial bonds more than bonds between friends:

> I think I can't call my housemates friends because they're like a second family because you have to live with them and you're kind of like… are you liking that? 'Erm, because you live with them and like, you always, like meals, you're always around each other. So with your friends, you make time to see them, you kind of, you're always around your housemates. (F18/NPH1)

This first part of these focus group findings is an interpretation of the thoughts and views of students through their accounts of their leisure lives, and the influences they felt were most salient.

The following chapter explores their accounts of their time use and leisure lifestyles since making the transition to the second year at university, with a focus on areas of continuity, alongside change.

Chapter 10

Students in their social networks: processes of continuity alongside change

10.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from data that were generated during focus groups in 2013. This second phase of focus groups explored students' reflections on their time use and leisure lives during the transition to their second year at university – specifically, the underlying social processes that might help explain developments in the patterns found in the time use data in 2013.

10.2 Focus group participants

There were 35 students who agreed took part in this second phase of the study. The characteristics of students who took part in 2013 are illustrated in Table 10.2.1.

There were eight students – four males and four females - who participated in focus groups at both time points as Table 10.2.1 illustrates. Students' characteristics were proportionally similar at both time points – with the exception of age – although there were some small fluctuations.

Table 10.2.1 Characteristics of focus group participants in 2012 and 2013

	2012 (n=29)		2013 (n=35)	
	N	%	N	%
Sex				
Males	14	48.3	13	37.1
Females	15	51.7	22	62.9
Age (years)				
18	11	37.9	0	0
19	16	55.2	8	22.9
20 and over	2	6.9	27	77.1
Term-time residence				
Parental Home	7	24.1	7	20.0
Non-Parental Home	22	75.9	28	80.0
Family HE history				
First Generation	17	58.6	24	68.6
Second Generation	12	41.4	11	31.4

10.3 Transition to second year

The overarching topic for discussion was students' transition from first to second year, and how their time use, especially their leisure time, and particularly their relationship with alcohol may have developed as they negotiated this transition.

Overall, students' responses during the focus groups indicated their transition from first year to second year revealed varying degrees of continuity alongside change. A key feature of their second year was a propensity to spend more time doing paid work, and, more of them tended to undertake some form of paid work. Alongside this, students expressed a sense that they were more engaged with their course work, because they

perceived that their assessments mattered this year, and this added engagement in their course work had some impact on their time. In addition to this, NPH students' living contexts had changed - NPH students lived in private-sector rented accommodation (University accommodation was only available for first year undergraduates) - and this had also impacted on their time use, specifically, the time they spent sleeping, 'chilling out' and 'going out' to socialize with friends. Drinking alcohol, however, remained a significant aspect of students' leisure time at home, particularly NPH students. Indeed, their alcohol consumption was more home-based, and tended to be a key feature of socializing at home with friends.

Students continued to spend a large proportion of their time on Facebook, and, to a lesser extent Twitter. This and the other aforementioned themes are examined in greater detail below.

10.4 More work this year

'More work' emerged as a theme when the students were asked to account for any changes in their time use, and what they thought the single biggest impact on their time use was. However, for some students 'more work this year' encapsulated both university course work and various amounts of part-time paid employment that students did beyond their degree work. Among those students who spoke of an increase in their university workload there was a clear sense that because their coursework counted towards their final degree classification they took it more seriously than they had done so in their first year. This finding was consistent with the students' observations

from the previous year, where some students justified aspects of their lifestyle – e.g. sleeping in, missing lectures, staying out late or calculated effort with course work – in terms of their course work not counting toward the final degree classification. Indeed, this tended to be explained by students in terms of, whether or not the course work 'mattered' or not. That said, there continued to be a number of second-year students who put pressure on themselves:

> I suppose it just depends on your personality, because personally I, well I'm a perfectionist, so I never like leaving anything to be second best when I could do it at my best. 'Err, so, like last year, even though it didn't count, I was still pushing hard, getting firsts. 'Err, so, that hasn't really changed that much this year. (M20/PH2)

In the main, students continued to be motivated by the marks they received in their second year for their course work, and the connection between good marks and their final degree classification was a persistent theme in discussions around the students' lives in their second year. The contrast was neatly illustrated in the following extract:

> Second year counts as well, doesn't it, so it's, like, I think in the first year… I did my assignments, I cared about them and did them, but this year it's more time consuming because it really matters, 'cos obviously being in the second year, I was saying to you only the other day that I'm starting to freak out a bit because next year will be the

> last year and it's like where to go from there. So, really, now you have to get right into it. (F20/NPH2)

Alongside the increased emphasis on university work, paid employment remained an important aspect of university life for some students. Indeed, students tended to refer to either an increase in their paid work and/or initiating some form of part-time employment in their second year. Students who undertook paid work, said they would typically work between 10 and 25 hours each week. Moreover, the types of jobs in which students were employed varied, although they were mainly relatively low paid jobs and were typically in retail or hospitality. The increase in numbers of students who had a part-time job referred to during the group interviews was borne out by the quantitative findings.

The students most affected by the perceived need for (more) paid work tended to be those who lived away from their parental home during term time, as those who lived at home tended to already have some form of part-time employment. All tended to view paid work as an inevitable constraint on their time for other, preferred activities, such as leisure-oriented activities, as this female said:

> I didn't work at all last year, like, employer-wise. Like, I had less lectures this year and … I have four jobs now, whereas I didn't have any jobs last year and, 'erm, I have spent a lot less time doing things in my spare time like my hobbies, 'erm, and going out. (F19/NPH1)

The motivations for paid work were especially noteworthy: subsidizing their lifestyles, while gaining increasing independence from parents were common themes. In this regard, some students expressed their earnings from paid employment alongside less financial reliance on their parents as a positive step:

> Like, student finance really, but my mum and dad help me out less now or they don't help me out at all now because I work, 'erm, which is nice. I don't like relying on them. So… now that I work, it's easier. (F19/NPH2)

In terms of their overall financial arrangements, students typically reported a complex mix of loans, grants, part-time employment and parental subsidies.

10.5 New and additional sources of pressure

The second-year students reported a 'downside', however, to living in private accommodation and this added to their stress levels. The negative consequences included household bills and chores, and students' petty conflicts within their shared households that they had little option but to resolve themselves, living as they were without the protection of the University Porters to act as mediators in residential conflicts:

> Yeah, there's still like a different dynamic 'cos, like, you're in a house and it's different, like, if there was a problem last year you'd go to the

> porters and it'd all get sorted whereas this year you're more independent and have to sort it out yourself. F20/NPH2

10.6 Sleeping too much

Students discussed change and disruption to their sleeping patterns during their first year at university at great length. However, students were busier as second years and this was the prevailing viewpoint across the focus groups. They tended to spend more of their time doing part-time jobs around their University timetables so there was less time to sleep during the day, or nap between lectures. The knock-on effect seemed to be that students were more tired at the end of their day, tended to sleep more at night, and this sleep was less likely to be disrupted. This was particularly the scenario for students who had work, placements or early morning lectures during the week, as outlined by this female:

> I think mine's a bit different 'cos I think I've found that I'm probably going to sleep earlier than last year. I've found I have more sleep this year, because I'm getting more tired 'cos obviously I've got my sports, work and in bed by eight o'clock, that's it. I'm just absolutely exhausted. (F19/NPH2)

The change in students' socializing was also reflected in their sleeping patterns in terms of less disruption from housemates returning after a night out, or indeed other students living in adjacent accommodation returning from a night out, which was a more common experience in the previous year:

> Yeah, I didn't have much sleep last year I don't think, not as much as I do this year, 'erm, simply because I think everyone goes out a lot more, like, in the first year. Even if you don't go out, everyone comes back in, so if you do get to sleep it's a disturbed sleep. So, it's not the best sleep quality. (M19/NPH1)

10.7 No more 'just chillin[g]'

In marked contrast to their comments during the first year focus groups (where the expression was ubiquitous), the second-year students rarely used the phrase 'just chillin[g]' as a proxy for various leisure activities and social contexts. Indeed, when they were asked to discuss their leisure time use as second year students, they were more explicit in what they did, and tended to talk more specifically about particular leisure activities. When they did spend time relaxing alone or with friends, they tended to refer to particular activities undertaken in particular parcels of time with specific people: 'I couldn't believe it, I was like, I've done the same thing, like the highlight of my week is relaxing with my housemates watching Top Gear on Dave' (M19/NPH2). This was typical of how students tended to frame their comments about relaxing with friends as a leisure activity. In other words, 'just chilling' appeared less of a catch-all expression among second-year students because they were more likely to be able to recognize and recall what they perceived as the relatively infrequent occasions when they had managed to carve out a period, however brief, of leisure time. All-in-all, there was a clear sense of being busier and of having less leisure time. As one female put it:

> My main difference was that I have a job this year, so I've been in fifteen hours plus working, which I would probably have spent doing nothing last year. (F19/NPH2)

10.8 Not going out, because we're staying in

The constraint on leisure time seemed to have played some part at least, in how students socialized with their friends in the second year. Socializing with friends continued to be the students' favourite leisure activity, although the setting and/or social context had changed compared with the previous year. For example, whereas first year students were more likely to go out to socialize – specific student nights were on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays – with their friends, and particularly to meet new friends, second year students tended to go out less and spend more of their time indoors (e.g. in their privately rented houses or flats) socializing with friends they knew. These would typically be a mixture of their housemates, and/or course-mates. This was perhaps unsurprising, because those students living away from the parental home, had to seek second year accommodation in the private sector – University accommodation was usually restricted to first year students only – and the students themselves decided with whom they lived:

> I think, like, this, 'erm, this year… 'cos like obviously I'm in a house now, so we just sit there and have a few beers and watch telly, whereas last year because we were in halls we didn't really do that. So, I think the style of our socializing has changed. (M19/NPH1)

> Yeah, that makes sense. I was like that as well. I lived on campus last year, like, in a hall-type-affair and now we all live in a house and there's a television and we all find ourselves just sat, in the living room for hours on end just watching TV. (F19/NPH2)

The data from the time use diaries confirmed that chatting with friends and watching TV were the leisure activities in which students continued to spend the most amount of time. Indeed, what appeared to be occurring in many instances was a conflation of several leisure activities – screen time, chatting with friends, just being in the company of fellow students alongside drinking alcohol and socializing while relaxing from what they viewed as their busy lifestyles during their second year.

The shift towards home-based leisure was facilitated by what the students saw as some of the benefits of moving into private sector accommodation compared with university accommodation. These included access to more household facilities such as superfast broadband, satellite TV or Freeview digital TV, a lounge or sitting room and a fully equipped kitchen.

Students were asked to reflect on, and discuss whether or not there had been any changes in the patterns of going out for the night with their friends. There was an overarching sense that, as second year students, they did tend to go out less compared with the previous year, and that this was particularly a feature for those students living away from the parental home. Those students living in the parental home reported very similar patterns of 'going

out' to the previous year – their first year as students – going at weekends with their friends or partners:

> I don't really go out in the week, it's more like on a Saturday night with my boyfriend, to the pub or into Liverpool if it's a girl's night. (F20/PH1)

Students living together in the private sector talked about not being bothered to go out as much this year, compared with the previous year. The urge to meet more fellow students appeared to have waned, and they preferred to spend time with the friends they were living with. That is not to say that they did not go out at all. Rather they tended to refer to needing a reason to go out, such as someone's birthday. Moreover, going out for the night was less oriented on drinking alcohol compared with the previous year. Some students referred to a hierarchy of going out, where the term 'going out' could mean going to a restaurant or going to the cinema. Going 'out out' or a 'big night out' tended to mean a night out drinking alcohol, and would include going to the local bars, and nightclubs:

> I think it's, as well, because in the first year everything is new and by the second year you just know what's going to happen… it's a routine, same places, same people, so it's just like, you'd just rather do a different type of socializing like going out for a meal rather than going out-out. (F19/NPH2)

This view that their transition from life before university to being a first year student – and the lifestyles they developed as such – was, on reflection, explainable in terms of it being a novel experience and part of a process of 'settling in' was a common theme throughout their discussions. Novelty seemed to bring with it the excitement of exploring their new surroundings and the various establishments associated with the NTE. However, familiarity with their surroundings was not the sole reason that students gave for their decline in 'going out for the night'. Students talked about their preconceptions of going out socializing during the first year focus groups as an attractive aspect of university life. As second years, they sometimes spoke of a 'first year mentality', where going out as much as possible and drinking as much as possible was almost expected, i.e. the norm. Therefore, they might just as well make the most of the university experience:

> It's like the Freshers' stereotype, isn't it? (M19/NPH1)

> Yeah, it's like everyone's got to… that everyone has to, so you just… especially Freshers' week. I think you are expected to just drink as much as you can and go out as much as you can. (M19/NPH2)

> You get in the second year and everybody's like "I just can't be bothered any more" and you'd just like rather stay in. (M20/NPH2)

> Well in the first year you get into that mentality of while you're at university once you might as well, you know, make the most of it, but when you get into the second year, you're sort of over it. (F20/NPH2)

A theme that emerged from the first year student focus group was the close proximity of the campus accommodation to the city center as a factor in 'going out'. Interestingly, the bulk of private sector student accommodation was situated between the main campus and city center, or in the city center, which would suggest closer proximity to the NTE. However, the second year students did not mention their proximity to the city center during this second round of focus groups.

10.9 Drinking alcohol

The self-reported tendency of the second-year students to 'go out' less notwithstanding, drinking alcohol continued to play an important part in their social lives. Nevertheless, there were some changes in how the second year students viewed drinking alcohol – some of which have been noted above, including spending more of their drinking time 'at home' with their friends.

Of course, not all students drank alcohol, and there were students who were keen to express that their abstinence did not mean they were in any way missing out on socializing with their friends:

> I don't drink alcohol, 'erm, never really liked the taste really, so I end up driving mostly, I do go out though. (M19/PH1)

Other mediators of drinking alcohol were based around some students' cultural or religious beliefs where alcohol was either prohibited or the societal norms of their country of origin might have stigmatized drinking alcohol and/or public drunkenness as deviant behaviour. This was more common

among some international students, than those from the UK, as one female international student from South America said:

> Yeah, it was quite, like, challenging at first 'cos, like, I was used to drinking but I was never used to, like, getting really drunk and like pass out. And I've never done that 'til now 'cos I don't like it. I just think in a girl it looks really bad, but that's my point of view and culture, kind of thing. Like, you can drink at eighteen in a bar, kind of thing, and you can get alcohol before, but it's just girls don't drink as much. It's basically boys that want to get quite drunk. And I guess it's a different, like, society so you get, like, judged more, kind of thing. It's not, like, as open-minded as here because religion is quite a big thing back home, like, it's quite, like, a central part. (F19/NPH2)

This student described how she originated from a culture where public drunkenness was judged negatively, particularly it seemed for females. Nonetheless, her transition to first year university student in the UK, specifically living in university accommodation, seemed to have an influence on her views about drinking alcohol. For this student, the bonds she formed with her housemates and their group identity and norms in relation to drinking outweighed previous cultural norms that she felt might have constrained her drinking.

Among some of the students who reported drinking alcohol there was a sense that on a number of occasions during their first year they felt they had spent too much time drinking alcohol, and as second years they were

spending less time drinking. They outlined a number of reasons for this, including: the significance of the second year of their degree programmes; greater demands in the second year in terms of lectures and course work; less spare time to recover from the effects of a 'night out-out'; the expense; and, finally, a sense of their own maturation. Each of these is discussed further below.

First, students discussed the after effects of a 'night out' drinking as having a negative impact on the following day. They might be suffering with a hangover or sleep in, for example, and they were more concerned about missing second year lectures after a night out than they were as first years. Furthermore, some students had to get up early for their part-time work during the week, which they felt had an impact on their decisions not to go out drinking, as this extract between two females illustrated:

> If I've got like work early in the morning or if I've got a lecture early in the morning. (F20/NPH2)

> Yeah and me, if I have work the next day at nine o'clock I probably wouldn't go out the night before. (F19/NPH1)

Second, students were particularly strategic in terms of how they stretched their limited financial resources, yet still have fun socializing with their friends. One of the ways they did this was to 'pre-drink' – referred to as pre-loading in most alcohol-related literature – alcohol purchased from supermarkets indoors, before they went out to bars and clubs, or house

parties. Preloading not only saved them the expense of pub prices for the entire drinking occasion, but was also a social experience in its own right. The second-year students reported wanting to be intoxicated before they ventured into the city center, because it set the mood. Although a less frequent event during their second year, students continued to pre-load before a night out for the same reasons they gave the previous year – to save money, get the mood going and have fun with their friends. There were few differences between males and females in respect of pre-loading before a night out, and students from both residential sub-groups also said they enjoyed this aspect of drinking with friends, as this exchange between students illustrated:

> Cos you can go to Tesco and buy a lot of alcohol and drink it at home and then go out and you'll be a lot drunker than if you just went out and bought drinks when you were out. And you save yourself money as well. And it gets everyone together in one place before you go out as well. And it's like, we'll meet here at a certain time and then we'll go out afterwards. (M19/PH1)

> I think we pre-drank more last year because, like, there were more of us so we'd spend ages pre-drinking and we'd all be, like, really drunk before we went out whereas this year, because there's only five of us in our house, we do… if we're going out together we'll drink as we're getting ready, but we don't go out together that often, so, like, you know, if there's two of you going out you might still have a bit of a drink before going out. (F19/NPH2)

Finally, when some students reflected on their previous year's drinking they suggested that where it was excessive it was mainly a part of the process of being a first year student. They talked about their preconceptions of how university life was associated with drinking alcohol, and how to some extent, there was an expectation amongst their peers that this is how it should be. There was even a sense that drinking alcohol was encouraged by their Student Union. For those students who lived away from their parental home during term-time, this tended to be exacerbated by the excitement or novelty of being away from home for maybe the first time, and reduced parental surveillance. Indeed, this combination of factors, among others seemed to add to the pressure to drink more than they might have otherwise, and fostered a group habitus among some friendship groups, as this extract between three students illustrated when asked why they thought they drank more as first years:

> Erm, it's just kind of expected, I mean the staff at the university, they, you know, prepare for Freshers' week because they expect students to drink and students prepare for Freshers' week. (F20/NPH2)

> I think if students didn't drink during Freshers' week then there wouldn't be a Freshers' week. (M20/NPH1)

> Yeah, I think alcohol just runs the SU really, doesn't it. (M19/NPH1)

> The biggest thing is, 'cos first year most students it's, like, first time they live away from home and from parents, or like discipline or overlooking, and they just go wild and they lose it. (F19/NPH2)

However, as second year students, they tended to feel less pressure to drink excessively, and were less likely to go out for a long night drinking in bars and clubs unless it was for a special occasion, such as a birthday or society meeting. Societies and clubs tended to meet on Wednesdays during term-time, and there was an increase in the time spent drinking alcohol across the whole panel found in the time use diaries on Wednesdays. This remained consistent in both first and second year diaries, and was raised during the focus groups. Students who were in various sports clubs tended to play matches on Wednesday afternoons, and for a number of students, this was an opportunity to go out drinking with their teams or other members of their societies as this male said:

> I think Wednesday is the night I would go out, simply because I go out with the sports team, so it's sports team social on Wednesday, and then the odd Friday night at SU Friday, I think. (M19/NPH2)

10.10 Friends, damn friends and Facebook

Social media remained important in the day-to-day lives of the second-year students. Nonetheless, they reported changes in their uses of social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter compared with the previous year. For example, some students suggested that they spent less time in continual

contact with both their university friends made in their first year, and friendship groups back at 'home' via Facebook compared with the previous year. As second years, they claimed to 'dip into' their Facebook accounts throughout the day more sporadically. Notwithstanding this point, the second-year students still considered that they spent too much of their time on either Facebook, and to a lesser extent Twitter. That said, some of the time spent using social media was specific to their degree courses and/or societies and clubs. It was commonplace for students to belong to a combination of leisure and degree-related groups - such as the rowing society, second year Psychology page and their house friendship group. In this regard, the second-year students' use of social media (and Facebook and Twitter, in particular) appeared systematic and effective. A male student illustrated the point:

> I find myself on social networks all the time, especially Facebook and Twitter. 'Cos I run the twitter page for the rowing team, so I find myself tweeting all the time. And I've got my own twitter account as well, so it's like, two stops for me there, and I'm in the psychology group and we use Facebook like a house intercom, so everyone can see what's going on without leaving their room. (M20/NPH2)

This was a particularly notable change in the way in which second year students used social media, and how they managed their university networks, both social and course-related, compared with the previous year. Indeed, social media seemed to be utilized as a tool in organization of their daily lives, and to strengthen bonds among their university friends, and with

their respective course mates, even, departments. Notwithstanding this point, they continued to share photos among their friendship networks and use Facebook as a source of entertainment, but, this was not as apparent during discussions on social media in the focus groups in 2013. This seemed to suggest they might be assuming their student identities to a greater extent than they did in their first year, and that they viewed their statuses as a second year students with more diligence.

Students continued to use smartphones and tablets to access social media, and it was the ease of access that seemed to be one of the factors in why social media was used in the way it was – including its use as a treat or reward whilst working:

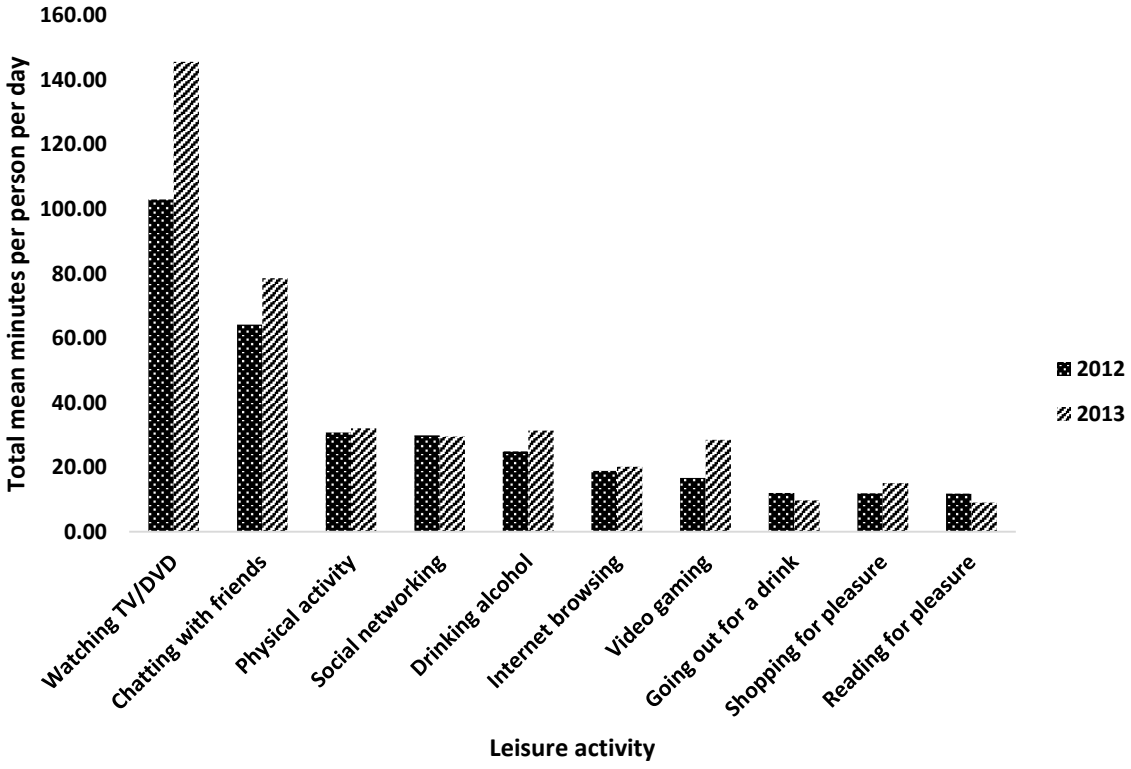
> 'Erm, I just use my phone mainly, just 'cos it's so easy and just 'cos it's there, I just sort of look at it, when I need to, but, like you say, you just do some work and then it's like a little break, I'll just have a look on Facebook, so it is constantly sort of there. (F19/PH1)

This second analysis of focus group findings is an interpretation of the thoughts and views of students through their accounts of their leisure lives, and the influences they felt were most salient in their second year at university.

10.11 Homogenizing of the leisure experience over time

One of the consequences evident in the focus group findings was how students' leisure experiences became more homogenized, during their first and second year at university. This was also found in the time use data. Figure 10.1 shows a representation of this homogenizing consequence of the student's leisure experience, based on the changing patterns of time use in leisure activities between 2012 and 2013.

Figure 10.1 Homogenizing of the leisure experience over time



This is represented by the total mean minutes per person per day for the top ten leisure activities. Total mean minutes are used to show the time that the entire panel spent in each activity at both points in time, and therefore, the relative popularity of individual activities when data were collected

(CTUR, 2013). This change over time highlights how the panel tended to spend more of their time concentrated in fewer activities.

The following chapter discusses their time use and leisure lifestyles throughout their transition through the undergraduate process.

Chapter 11

Explaining university students' leisure lives

11.1 Introduction

The premise for this research – outlined in Chapter 1 – was to document and explain sociologically, how university students spend their time in the round, with particular focus on their leisure time, and specifically the place of alcohol in the context of their day-to-day leisure. It was suggested in Chapter 2, that much of the existing cross-sectional research findings focused on university students' lifestyles, and youth leisure more generally, were limited in this respect, by tending to focus on individual aspects of youngsters' leisure lives in isolation – aspects such as alcohol, tobacco or illicit drug consumption, sedentariness or participation in sport.

This chapter discusses the findings presented in this thesis to illustrate how the questions posed in Chapter 1 can be answered in a way that addresses some of the limitations of existing research outlined in Chapter 2. In doing so, this chapter, in sociological terms: (i) discusses what first year undergraduates *actually* do with their time – explaining the differences in time use between sub-groups of students can be explained through processes of socialization, habitus formation and capital accumulation; (ii) illustrates the importance of term-time residence as a key factor in shaping how they organize friendship networks, and the impact on their university and leisure careers; (iii) explains the reality of the relationship between students and alcohol, as an aspect of their leisure time – setting alcohol in the context of their day-to-day lives; and, (iv) explain why these differences

change over time (i.e. year-on-year transition through the undergraduate process).

11.2 Student identity: habitus formation and capital accumulation

Patterns of time use varied between sub-groups of students that were explored from the outset of the research (i.e. sex, age, term-time residence and family HE history – the latter used as a proxy for social class). Overall, the findings showed that the more pronounced differences in patterns of time use were found between students based on their term-time residence (PH or NPH) and also between males and females.

Before delving into time use patterns amongst the various sub-groups of students, there were some interesting comparisons to be drawn between this sample of students, and young adults (between 16–24 years old) from the general population. First, the findings of this study showed in terms of overall time use, first year students tended to spend more time, on average, sleeping than young adults in the general population, more time on leisure activities, and considerably less time doing paid work (as a proportion of their overall time) compared with other broad categories of time use, and with youngsters in the general population (Gershuny, 2011; ONS, 2000, 2006).

In terms of shifting patterns of sleep, this is perhaps unsurprising because for the majority of first years in the panel, an integral feature of their transition to university was living in university managed accommodation. NPH students found themselves with new-found dimensions of freedom and

control over their 'spare time' and physical spaces, compared with what they perhaps had previously in the family home. The proximity of their bedroom on campus afforded them the opportunity to take a nap whenever they liked. Many students took advantage of this opportunity and to some extent, sleeping was viewed as a leisure activity – an aspect of their 'chilling out' repertoire of leisure activities they used to relax.

Moreover, changing levels of parental surveillance, and, the policing of daily routines facilitated a further loosening of constraints in regard to their previous living contexts, although, this was not static. Indeed, for NPH students, living away during term-time was not only viewed as the 'authentic' way of going to university (Holdsworth, 2006), but also as part of a process of leaving home via a stage of semi-autonomy (Goldscheider & Davanzo, 1986). The new freedoms and controls were part of a process of symbolic capital accumulation, in that, they adopted more adult-like responsibilities, particularly in their second year (Roberts 2009a: 26). That said, there was an underlying awareness of a parental 'safety-net' in terms of continuity of parental support and social capital which mitigated some of the 'riskiness' for students making this transition towards more independence from their parents (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Goldscheider and Davanzo, 1986; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005).

These aspects of transition from the youth life stage to a more a more adult-like stage of the life course are an increasingly common feature of a process of changing patterns of living contexts and dependencies for youth more widely as traditional transitions to adulthood are prolonged, and

uncertainties in the work arena pervade (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007; Goldscheider & Davanzo, 1986; Goodwin & O'Connor, 2005; Roberts, 1985). For some, living away as an aspect of transition to university was not only a passport to securing better quality employment, but specifically, their NPH status was a first, 'less risky' step in a prolonged process of leaving home (Holdsworth, 2000; 2006; Roberts, 2009: 99).

Second, PH students' time use during the early phase of their transition to university was somewhat different to NPH students, not least, because they remained in their family home. PH students tended to spend less time sleeping, on leisure activities, on their university work, and more time on travel, and paid work, and participation rates for paid work and travel were highest among PH students and previous findings in the most relevant literature would seemingly concur because PH students are more likely to be from working-class backgrounds, and, live relatively near to their university (Holdsworth, 2009; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005). Reasons students choose not to 'live away' in other relevant studies are sometimes economic, although some PH students couched the notion of leaving home as a riskier option apparently valuing continuity of their social capital in terms of parental support, and existing social networks. Indeed, this was also a view consistent with previous findings. As Patiniotis and Holdsworth (2005: 94) contend:

> For prospective students with no family tradition of HE, the advantages of staying at home are clearly associated with reducing

> both financial and identity risks, and the benefits of 'seizing the chance' and going elsewhere are less tangible

Furthermore, when students accounted for their time outside of their university work, a higher proportion of PH students undertook some form of paid employment which was a valuable source of both social and symbolic capital – that afforded them access to networks of friends and peers in the workplace, along with the status associated with work experience – which they tended to 'fit' around their university coursework. In a sense, their biographies were more predetermined to employment and community (Holdsworth, 2009; Patiniotis & Holdsworth, 2005). In this respect, they seemed to undertake their degree courses in a similar manner to their paid work, although they might skip lectures they judged as less important to do paid work. PH students who worked intimated their pre-university daily lives were somewhat bounded by a set routine based around their employment hours – often policed by their parents – which for the majority, continued into their first year at university. In essence, PH student's university experience was generally about acquiring the credentials (via a degree qualification), to afford them access to better employment prospects - and added the symbolic status of HE student and educational capital to their existing social and cultural capital – in an on-going process of capital accumulation (Roberts, 2009: 26).

Conversely, NPH students viewed living away during term-time as an important aspect of their student identity – the 'authentic' way to go to university (Holdsworth, 2006). For those with a family history of HE (mainly

more middle-class), their parents or older siblings endowed them with the legitimate capital associated with a smooth transition to university via primary socialization that may have been reinforced by their friendship networks throughout the life course via secondary socialization (Field, 2003; Kew, 1997; Roberts, 2009:270).

One corollary for NPH students during the initial few weeks of university life was a sense of a context in which they had space to form strong attachments within unfolding networks of new friends - housemates. Indeed, they had yet to 'learn' the role of student and in a structural sense found themselves: in a new living space, in an unknown city; with their new housemates; and some instruction when to attend the University registration process. Given the importance youngsters place on their friends, it is not difficult to attest a level of their desire to belong, and replace the comfort and security of pre-university friendship group bonds as quickly as possible. Indeed, a strong sense of community during their first year seemed to encapsulate NPH students as their individual identities became more homogenized (albeit temporarily), into a collective or we-group identity (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Elias, 2000; Hughes, 2003), based on who they shared their accommodation with (Palmer, O'Kane & Owens, 2009; Turner, 1977; Van Gennup, 1977).

NPH students' initially referred to the strength of these bonds with their new housemates and how they shaped aspects their leisure time such as having a shared living space free from parental surveillance that afforded them more autonomy to choose the activities they undertook, such as socializing

with their friends. Unfolding social networks and the desire to form new bonds was apparent in their screen time. For example, Facebook and Twitter are ubiquitous communications phenomena - particularly among the general population of young people (Buckingham, 2008; Livingstone, 2002; Pempek et al., 2009) – and this was no less important for students, as they managed their connections with existing friendship groups and forged new online connections with fellow students. Indeed, findings were consistent with data that while users forge relationships on many levels and share experiences, photos and biographical information, these sites are more like networked individualism, and there is little evidence of shared influence, membership and activism (Reich, 2010; West et al., 2009).

Students tended to spend time in an increasingly diverse range of leisure activities, which was similar to previous findings among youth more widely. Indeed, young peoples' leisure repertoires tend to be more dynamic and subject to less sustained loyalty in specific activities (Roberts, 2006; 2013). In other words, part of the process of constructing their preferred identities was 'trying out' many of the newly available leisure activities within a crowded leisure market that was perhaps, not a feature of their leisure repertoires prior to university (Hendry et al., 1993; Roberts, 2006). Students' predispositions for categories of leisure such as a liking for physical activity and sport, or, a penchant for spending their spare time engaged in more drug-oriented leisure activities such in the pub socializing, can be traced back to their primary socialization and subsequent process of habitus formation. Indeed, in the case of sport, Haycock (2014: 304) noted:

> sport is no different from many other leisure activities in this respect and students who were introduced to sport during childhood were more likely to be present day participants

Therefore, it is likely that the foundations for students' non-sporting leisure repertoires were also laid during their childhood, and subsequently reinforced through habitus formation as they made the transition through the life course. Starting university broadened the range of leisure activities available to many students, and one upshot was their apparent enthusiasm in trying out new leisure activities in their first year, including building on their previous experiences with drinking alcohol – this is discussed in greater detail below.

An affinity for screen time, and the activities therein was clearly evident among first year students, specifically, activities, such as watching TV or DVDs or chatting with their friends. This was consistent with findings for youth more widely and many youngsters tend to spend a substantial proportion of their leisure time engaged in sedentary screen-based activities (Biddle et al., 2004, 2009; Gorely et al., 2004). Students' screen time use was interwoven with socializing with friends. For example, watching TV or DVDs was the most popular activity students' undertook both alone, when they wanted to 'chill out' or relax, and, more frequently in social settings with their friends. While in the company of their friends the content of what they viewed was not necessarily the primary motivation for them watching. Rather and underlying social processes, such as reaffirming their friendship group membership and acquiring social and bonding capital via shared

experience (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Elias, 2000; MacDonald & Shildrick, 2007; Roberts, 2009; West, 2009) were likely to be significant. Thus, extended time watching TV or DVDs (The 'box-set effect') unfolded less by design and more as a consequence of the process of living together.

Students tended to spend a relatively small proportion of time on their university coursework compared with other categories of time use, such as leisure. Clearly, comparisons of work-related time use between university students and youth in general can be confounded by the differences between them in terms of their status as either employed or university student and are therefore difficult to explore. However, first year students spent more of their time on leisure activities than youth generally (Gershuny, 2011; ONS, 2000, 2006). One upshot of this was that time for doing their university work was squeezed. Indeed, it was apparent in the findings that the disparity between the study hours universities expected of their students and the time they actually tended to spend on their studies were consistent with previous research (Innis & Shaw, 1997:88), and, in the case of this study was as a result of their time being constrained by the time they tended to spend in leisure and part-time paid work.

Findings from the focus groups in 2012 indicated that 'being a first year' was sometimes associated with preconceived ideas about university life, and these ideas included the notion that – in the eyes of some students – their assessments were less significant. In addition, limited lecture time and an absence of attendance monitoring at lectures and other scheduled sessions

generated a context in which students were relatively unconstrained. This meant that they could live out these expectations of 'being a first year' to the full including the particular culture of the University or institutional habitus (Ball, 2013; Reay et al., 2005; 2010). In sociological terms, this seems to illustrate the Thomas theorem, in that, if people believe something to be true then it is likely to be true in its consequences: i.e. if students are encouraged directly and indirectly (by friends or their fellow students) to believe that the first year is for fun, and, there are limited constraints on them to think otherwise, then they are likely to behave accordingly (De Swann, 2001: 30; Merton, 1995). Indeed, the networks they were a part of consisted mainly of other students with limited interference from adults, in the form of tutors, and encouraged the development of a group norm, which was particularly the case for NPH students. Institutional processes (of, for example, of marketing the University as a good, exciting place to be as a student) were also a part of this context.

Notwithstanding this point, students were far from being one homogenous group. Indeed, one of the most striking features of the findings was just how variable students were in the time they spent engaged in various day-to-day activities (regardless of their sex, age or residential status). This was represented in findings from the diary data collected in 2012 by the large standard deviations: consistently found in many activities and was evidence that group norms did not act deterministically on all those within the group. Students utilized agency to mediate their social context (Roberts, 2009a) which reflected to greater or lesser degrees depending upon their habitus (i.e. before arriving at University), and, the particular groups (friendship,

leisure and sports) they became part of and the norms within those groups (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Furlong, 2013; Hendry et al., 1993).

Notwithstanding the key part that term-time residence played in the day-to-day lives of students, sex was also a noted influence on students' time use. For example, females tended to spend more time sleeping, eating, and on personal care than males, whereas, males tended to spend more time doing sport and leisure. Both findings were consistent with sex differences found in young adults from the general population (Gershuny, 2011; ONS, 2000, 2006). This further supports the significance of gendered processes of socialization, which tend to give rise to gendered patterns of time use. Nonetheless, the variability within groups should be noted.

Findings revealed that the additional time males spent on leisure was mainly in screen time activities – which as a broad domain of leisure time, was where the majority of students tended to spend the most time, regardless of sex. The amount of time students tended to spend watching TV or DVDs overall, was consistent with previous time use studies, which also reported watching TV as the single largest activity in young people's media use (Gershuny, 2011; ONS, 2000, 2006; Roberts, 2006). As previously argued, these sex differences can be explained through processes of socialization throughout the life-course through their familial networks. Mothers and fathers 'pass on' their own predispositions and tastes too their children through the process of primary socialization, and an outcome of this process is the reproduction of stereotypical gender roles (James & James, 2009; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975; Roberts, 2009a: 108). That said, there was

evidence among some leisure activities students were more gender neutral and in some aspects of leisure these stereotypical gender roles (such as going to the pub, going to the cinema, dancing, shopping for pleasure and social networking) was shifting, in part as a consequence of going to university. Friendship groups among NPH students might well be expected to cross sex boundaries given the increasingly mixed sex environment of many residential properties at the University.

Similarly evident in the findings, were some differences between the three age-based sub-groups. Age was relevant to how first years interpret their identity as a student. For example, older students seemed less likely to feel a need to use their university lives to develop their preferred identities in the manner that the younger students appeared to. This tendency among younger students reflects a propensity to invest a large proportion of their time in a period of exploration, forming relationships and developing interests as highlighted by Roberts (2013) which contribute to the construction of more adult-like identities further removed from familial identities. Older students also tended to be less concerned with some of the more exuberant aspects frequently associated with student life, such as the centrality of new friends in expanding networks, and extended opportunities to socialise that formed part of the attraction for younger students to live away for the duration of their degree courses. In this instance, part of the function of university life for younger students in particular was to extend life-stage transition towards adulthood (Brooks, 2009: 645; Roberts 2013).

Students' family HE history (used as a measure of social class) showed that there were few differences in overall time use between first generation students from more working-class backgrounds, and second generation students from more middle-class backgrounds. The exception to this was in terms of participation in paid work and some leisure activities such as physical activity. For example, the propensity for a larger proportion of second generation students doing less paid work could be related to perhaps a more affluent middle-class background, and, was perhaps unsurprising because students in the panel were disproportionately English, white and middle-class and thereby, tended to have predispositions to leisure that are commonly associated with youngsters with these socio-economic characteristics (Roberts, 2011).

11.3 'Bezzies for life': the significance of friends and peers

Notwithstanding the significance of parents and family as agents in the process of primary socialization, it is well documented that friends and peers become increasingly significant as young people progress through the life-course – specifically the youth life-stage - in a process of secondary socialisation (Feinstein et al., 2005; Green, 2010; Jones, 2009; Roberts, 2009). During the transition to university, friends and peers became increasingly significant agents of secondary socialisation, particularly in the realm of leisure. This significance was dynamic and reciprocal as students influenced, and were influenced by their peers in both their university careers and leisure repertoires as other research has demonstrated (Cullen, 2009; Feinstein et al., 2006; Harris, 2012; Wilson, 2010).

Leisure was an opportunity for students to manage their transition to university life, forging new and consolidating emerging friendships. Leisure was experienced through the company of friends and peers, specifically during the liminal period outlined in the previous section. For example, one important aspect of constructing their preferred identities among newly acquired friends and peers, was their own popularity (Brooks, 2007; Furlong, 2013; Roberts, 2012), particularly among their housemates in the case of NPH students, where the bonds tended to be stronger and with whom they formed closer relationships. Indeed, NPH students tended to view their new housemates as a second family, forming bonds based on close proximity and the amount of time they spent together. One upshot was a collective identity, based on their household in a process of group habitus formation (Dunning & Hughes, 2013).

The formation of collective identities (group habituses) appeared to run in parallel with the construction of students' preferred individual identities, although in their first year this process was experienced differently, depending on students' residential status. In the case of NPH students, their housemates - and to a lesser extent their course mates - were central to their expanding networks of friends and peers. For PH students on the other hand, it tended to be the pre-university friends and new course mates who were more central.

The upshot for student leisure repertoires was a process in which first years tended to take-up various leisure activities that involved any form of socializing with their new friends and sometimes cliques from among their

friendship groups – such as shopping for pleasure, and watching TV or DVDs. In essence, they were doing more of the same, but with new people. Part of a process of needing to 'fit-in' with their new friendship groups, and acquire the capital that came from group membership (Holdsworth, 2005, 2009; MacDonald & Shildrick, 2007; West, 2009). Indeed, the process of 'fitting-in' with friends and peers sometimes manifested into what might be considered less desirable leisure activities – smoking tobacco or excessive alcohol consumption, that were contrary to their pre-university habituses – specifically, though not exclusively, NPH students, a similar finding to other research (Cullen, 2009; Wilson, 2010).

The centrality of friends and peers as agents of secondary socialization was particularly significant among NPH students, who seemed to place high value in bonding capital with members of their new social networks. These bonds were frequently reinforced via processes of 'group decisions' that created a group-habitus, particularly in aspects of socializing and home-based leisure activities such as watching TV or DVDs. One outcome for some students was a tendency to stay up late with their new housemates and some spoke of going to bed as a group decision, not in a formal but rather in the processual informal way. This was also part of a process of not wanting to be the first to go to bed – because they wanted to 'fit in' and re-affirm or consolidate their group membership as MacDonald and Shildrick (2007) and West (2009) have agreed. However, for some students, bonding capital with some housemates while important was seemingly ephemeral. This is discussed in greater detail in section 11.5 – Transition to second year.

11.4 Going all-inclusive: first year students and alcohol

The findings revealed that the majority of first year students spent time drinking alcohol. For many students – including both those who drank alcohol, and the teetotalers – there was some consensus regarding how student identity was often perceived as being synonymous with staying up late and going out socializing; going to pubs and clubs; and alcohol consumption.

However, while most students agreed on the ubiquity of the stereotypical association between student identity and increased alcohol consumption – indeed, it contributed to their own preconceptions of university life - their own personal views were more nuanced, and depended on their experiences with alcohol consumption throughout their life-course. For example, drinking alcohol in most cases was a part of their individual habitus formation, (i.e. their propensity to drink alcohol or not, and to what degree). This stage of adolescence is frequently found to be associated with early experimentation with alcohol, tobacco and other drugs – as young consumers attempt to manage the tensions between acquiring more adult-like tastes without the same credentials or competencies as adult consumers, including: legal prohibition based on their age; inexperience in managing the effects of alcohol; or indeed, permission from adult drinkers to occupy the same drinking spaces (Aldridge et al., 2011, Furlong, 2013). The transition to university created a context in which students could build upon these experiences earlier in the life-course in the company of like-minded friends and peers. That said, students moderated the time they spent drinking (especially in their second year) to the social contexts they found themselves

in. Their use of agency in this way can be viewed as a part of a preferred identity construction within developing leisure identities that are especially strong signifiers … so closely connected with the transition from youth to adulthood (West, 2009: 361).

Managing this transition to university through time spent drinking alcohol, was seen as exciting, unproblematic, and a normalized aspect of student socializing with their friends and peers (Shildrick, 2002), a finding similar to other research. This process of acquiring a taste for alcohol, is likely have started for some during their childhood as an aspect of primary socialization, in the form of intermittent or occasional permission from their parents to drink at home – specifically those with parents who themselves were consumers (Bremner et al., 2011; Demant & Ostergaard, 2007). Thus, alcohol in the home became a commodity associated with a treat or reward - something to consume on a special family occasion such as Christmas, birthdays or Christenings. Indeed, students in their second year also associated going 'out-out' for a night drinking alcohol in similar terms of it being a 'special occasion', preferring to stay in drinking with friends as an aspect of socializing with their friends

Students said that intermittent consent to drinking alcohol by their parents tended to increase in frequency for most students as they moved through their life-course from early to mid-teens. At this point during their adolescence, there were some sex differences in their reflections on their habituation to alcohol. For example, females (particularly the middle-class students), tended to continue along the same drinking trajectories, that is

to say, mainly drinking at home, perhaps interspersed with occasional drinking in their friends' homes. However, males (and some working-class females) on the other hand, reflected on a similar range of contexts combined with a more covert, street-based, peer-oriented experience (including parks and other public spaces) during their inauguration in alcohol consumption (Bremner et al., 2011; Harnett et al., 2000; Plant, 2008).

Throughout the habituation process of developing a taste for alcohol, both sexes learned how to manage their physiological reactions to intoxication (such as learning to enjoy the actual taste of alcoholic drinks), and other less desirable aspects of intoxication (such as slurred speech, dizziness, vomiting, and unwanted sexual advances) (Hughes, 2003; Rickwood et al., 2011). During adolescence, these were mainly learned in the company of friends and peers (Hughes, 2003). Indeed, learning to drink alcohol tended not to be a solitary pursuit – It was one way to enjoy socializing with friends (Aldridge et al., 2011, Hughes, 2003). Furthermore, drinking alcohol was an important *rite de passage* in the process of youngsters constructing more adult-like identities, and in the process of both acquisition and maintenance of friendship group membership throughout adolescence (Demant & Ostergaard, 2007; MacDonald & Shildrick, 2007; Seaman & Ikegwuonu, 2010; West, 2009). The context that unfolds for first year university students is one whereby there is a sense of 'space' in which to fulfill their expectations of 'being a first year' in terms of the time spent drinking with friends.

Notwithstanding the social pressures from friends and peers to consume alcohol, sex differences in time spent drinking could in part, be traced back to highly gendered primary socialization processes within their family settings, and what could be termed traditional concepts of femininity and masculinity – the role of men and women, and what are deemed the societal norms ascribed to these roles in the milieu – and alcohol consumption is simply one of many contentious aspects in the process of primary socialization in the reproduction of these roles (Bremner et al., 2011; Harnett, 2000; Roberts, 2009). Social class however, seemed to be less of an influence in how the students organized time in their day-to-day lives, including leisure and the time they spent drinking with their university friends. Indeed, it was the forging of new bonds among unfolding networks that provided new students with increasing bridging and bonding capital that was seemingly their main imperative, and predispositions based on social class in their leisure lifestyles and specifically alcohol consumption were less apparent.

One stark corollary for young people's consumption is how public drunkenness is portrayed in the mainstream media. The last two decades in particular, have been witness to increased stigma attached to public drunkenness, generally led by the mainstream media, specifically in the case of intoxicated young women (Jackson & Tinkler, 2007; Measham & Ostergaard, 2009; Plant, 2008). Often goaded by young men, they are both stigmatized as irresponsible, and sexualized by unflattering images in newspapers, and on social media (Carvel & O'Hara, 2009; Readhead, 2014). These processes of media-led 'moral panic' seems in some sense, to be a

male reaction to the emancipation of women, mainly through a male gaze, in terms of their increasing financial, employment and social autonomy, and to some extent, the increasing proportion of women in the student population (UUK, 2014), add to a sense of moral panic. Moreover, the ubiquity of social media (born out in the screen time data in the present study), a sense of ever-increasing media intrusion into people's private lives in general, has seemingly exaggerated a sense of increasing levels of hedonistic consumption for students and youth generally. However, the case for moral panic was not apparent in students' patterns of time use, particularly for time spent drinking alcohol. Indeed, a recent report by ONS (2015) reporting the decline in alcohol consumption would seem to support this. These disparities between the 'reality' of students' lives in regard of the time spent drinking with a sense of moral panic are indicative of the agency that students possess to adapt their time spent drinking to 'fit' with the variety of social contexts in which they find themselves, and drinking trajectories are therefore not linear, but tend to be more context specific, as research that focuses specifically on students tends to show (John & Alwyn, 2010; Wechsler et al., 2000; 2002).

Notwithstanding this point, the dichotomy in the portrayal of the sexes and their drinking, in a sense, reaffirms a sense of 'universal truth', in that, for males, drinking and intoxication is 'just what we do' (Aldridge et al., 2011; Harnett, 2000; Miller & Plant, 2003), and in the case of first year students can be viewed as 'rites de passage' (West, 2009: 361; Van Gennup, 1977). There remains for females however, there remains a sense of 'moral panic' about their drinking and intoxication, specifically in public spaces (Aldridge

et al., 2011; Bremner et al., 2011; Harnett et al, 2000; Jackson & Tinkler, 2007).

The transition to first year student was evidently a varied experience for the youngsters in this study, and this was evident in their leisure repertoires, and more specifically, in their alcohol consumption. However, while there were patterns of time spent drinking alcohol that were distinct to each sub-group of students, particularly sex and term-time residential status, there was also common ground. For example, the propensity for a higher proportion of males to drink alcohol than females (and to do so for longer periods of time), was comparable with previous findings based on well documented sex differences in the unitary amounts consumed by both sexes in studies on youth and alcohol more widely (Kuntsche et al., 2010), and specifically university students (John & Alwyn, 2010; Wechsler et al., 2000; 2002). However, the homogenizing influences on students through their social bonds with the opposite sex (especially among NPH students) as a mitigating factor among student's narratives about the time they spent drinking was noted.

Indeed, the common ground between both male and female first year students was apparent in several aspects of time spent drinking. For example, both sexes used alcohol as a social 'lubricant' to manage their self-confidence, and to construct preferred individual identities with the aim of impressing their friends and peers, and sometimes to negotiate sexual encounters with others, a finding consistent with other research on youth (Aldridge et al., 2011; Borsary & Carey, 2001; Griffen et al., 2009; Monahan

& Lanutti, 2000; Plant, 2008). Moreover, these social processes were evident in their narratives during the focus groups – to illustrate this point, both sexes shared stories of determined drunkenness, which sometimes resulted in undesirable outcomes, such as: passing out; vomiting and being ejected from pubs. Indeed, these experiences were often encapsulated as 'part of a fun night out' (F18/NPH2), specifically amongst NPH first years, and the younger students, who tended to spend the most time drinking (Wechsler et al., 2009; Willoughby & Carroll, 2009). Indeed, it was common for them to share photos and stories of their nights out, specifically showing how intoxicated they were on Facebook and Twitter as an aspect of their preferred identity construction, although this process is common among youth generally (Livingstone, 2002; Ridout, et al., 2012; Roberts, 2009).

Determined drunkenness was a more frequent drinking style among first year NPH students for a number of reasons. First, for NPH students, the normal constraints of living in the family home, and being subject to an increased level of parental surveillance were inevitably relaxed by their current living contexts, where they enjoyed increased levels of personal control and freedom to construct this aspect of their preferred identities compared with PH students (Beasley et al., 2004; Gerritsen, 2000; Holdsworth, 2006; Jones, 2009). That said, they also tended to on occasion express how events might simple unfold, and they might have spent more time drinking than they originally anticipated, which suggested that more context specific or 'unplanned' feature to their time use.

Second, and from a structural perspective, the University timetable for most degree programs commenced two (sometimes three) weeks after first years were allocated their accommodation. Thus, there is a liminal period during which residential students not only go through a formal process of completing the institutional requirements of their programs, but also, the informal process of assuming their new identity of university students – for those who remained in their parental home, the informal aspect of this process was delayed until commencement of their program. Furthermore, the week of festivities (Freshers' week) that was scheduled between the formal registration process and commencement of study was more accessible to resident students and created a context which students simply had more time on their hands to fill.

Third, the novel living context for NPH students seemed to facilitate a collective sense of imperative about quickly making new friends amongst their housemates and other first year resident peers – a process that was also delayed for PH students. The process of making new friends and strengthening the commitment to these new bonds with housemates, in this novel setting was more easily facilitated by consuming alcohol at the social gatherings, (such as house parties and student nights out) that were a regular feature of campus culture, a finding that has been found elsewhere (Beasley et al, 2004; Demant & Ostergaard, 2007; Holdsworth, 2006; Piacentini & Banister, 2006; Roberts, 2012; Zamboanga et al., 2009). This sense of urgency to acquire as many new friends as possible was somewhat ephemeral, which was evident in the findings relating to their transition to

the second year. This is discussed in greater detail in the following section, 11.5.

Fourth, students tended to have both degrees of financial autonomy compared with their previous circumstances. This was however, alongside degrees of financial insecurity because of the way in which student maintenance loans and grants are paid directly to their bank accounts on a termly basis. Some students were clearly not used to large amounts of money in their accounts and many referred to an initial spending spree during the first weeks of their stay in university accommodation. Indeed, some used their loans and grants to fund their nights out drinking, and others referred to more strategic use of their money to purchase alcohol more cheaply to fuel their house parties, pre-loading before they went out to the city's student-oriented pubs and clubs.

Finally, the combination of these four aspects of their residency and easy access to student-only nights in the city's licensed premises afforded first year's relative safety and security to enjoy a bounded hedonistic consumption of alcohol, while they explored their new setting and constructed their student identities (IAS, 2000; Szmigin et al., 2008). However, not all the students spent time drinking and there was evidence of student teetotalers or likely occasional drinkers who simply did not drink alcohol during their seven diary days. Indeed, some expressed how they adopted strategies to avoid standing out, such as exaggerating their course workloads (John & Alwyn, 2010; Piacentini & Banister, 2006; 2009; Seaman & Ikeguonu, 2010). However, for many, drinking alcohol became a more

permanent activity within their leisure repertoires, as they progressed through the youth life-stage (Roberts, 2006), and continued to enjoy their assumed student identities.

11.5 Transition to second year

Overall, the transition to second year for many students was dependent on how 'immersed' they were in university life. Notwithstanding the requirement for NPH students to vacate their university managed accommodation – making room for the next intake of first years – and move into private-sector rented accommodation, the PH/NPH differences were still apparent. So, in this sense, transition could be viewed in terms of some continuity. That said, there were some notable areas of change in students' day-to-day lives and how they managed their leisure time, and the activities they undertook.

First, in terms of their social networks, the imperative to make many new friends appeared to wane. Indeed, students were seemingly more 'settled' in their friendship groups and that peer selection processes had slowed the unfolding of social networks. That said, students formed stronger ties with members of these networks maximising bonding capital. Indeed, the process of seeking out like-minded peers tends to be reflected by increasing stability in young peoples' patterns of time use, and subsequently their leisure lives (Hughes, 2003; Roberts, 2006), and this was apparent among the students via a process in which their leisure activities became more consolidated - based on increasing loyalty to specific activities such as watching TV or DVDs, socializing with friends, and, particularly spending their time drinking

with friends (Roberts, 2013) – was directly related to the levels to which they were immersed in the University culture.

Processes of peer selection were also an influence on the leisure repertoires of second year students, as the imperative that was seemingly apparent in first year to 'try out' new activities (i.e. spend time going 'out-out') were more bounded by the group habitus of their social networks, upon which they were increasingly dependent (Dunning & Hughes, 2013). By seeking out like-minded others, students' utilized their agency in their leisure to further build their identities, and statuses among friends and peers in the process of acquiring greater independence from their parents (Brooks, 2007; Roberts, 2015). An interesting development compared with their first year, was how PH and NPH students were more likely to be integrated in expanding social networks of university friends. This benefited both sub-groups of students, not least, because PH students possessed greater social and cultural capital in the form of tacit local knowledge such as 'good' places to go that was not immediately accessible to NPH students if they were new to the city. Moreover, some PH students benefited by utilizing their contrasting identities which Holdsworth (2005) terms a 'strong sense of being between two worlds'. Thus, PH students were included in social networks and activities that were mainly a feature of term-time residency such as, being part of mid-week student nights with their NPH friends – having somewhere to stay after a night out or, indeed, a night in socializing. For some this breaking down of student sub-groups based on their term-time residence occurred during their first year, but was more apparent in their second year, and was founded in contact with like-minded others during

their courses. Put more simply, students were reciprocally 'trading' in capital that facilitated extended access beyond the confines of the student-oriented NTE, into the local NTE (Holdsworth, 2005; Roberts, 2009: 26).

Second, new and additional pressures on their available time such as undertaking some form of paid work alongside their university careers inevitably 'squeezed' the time available to them for other activities including university work and leisure. One way they managed these tensions was to spend less time going out socializing. Indeed, this was a noted change in second year students' time use. Prioritizing their activities in their day-to-day lives was part of the process of embracing more adult-like identities within an extended period of youth, and taking more responsibilities around their university work by taking some form of paid work and/or a reduction in 'going out' socializing through the week were two means of managing this (Brooks, 2007; Moreau & Leathwood, 2006). Notwithstanding this point, socializing continued to play a significant part of students' leisure repertoires, specifically, drinking alcohol. However, it was how they socialized during the second year that was most profound, as students tended to prefer 'staying in' to consume alcohol, in communal settings such as their private accommodation rather than being bothered to 'go out', particularly on week-days. In a sense, their peer-centered socializing leisure activities became seemingly more home-based which was integral to their transitions to more adult-like identities (James & James, 2009: 150; Jones, 2009). Transitions to adulthood are highly significant in youth (Jones, 2009), and are related to: a desire for greater independence from parents; social experimentation; and development of self and social identity (James &

James, 2009: 150). Therefore, university offered students (particularly NPH students), the opportunity to experience these aspects, frequently associated with transition to adulthood with less risk (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007). In their second year, students particularly embraced these responsibilities and this was apparent in the findings. Moreover their heightened perception during their second year of the significance of their university assessments, seemed to rationalize their preferred behavior, and was indicative of shifting social norms throughout the undergraduate process (Brooks, 2007; Furlong, 2013; Hendry et al., 1993).

Finally, notwithstanding these points, drinking alcohol continued to be interwoven throughout students' leisure lives. Albeit, students' uses of locations and spaces were shaped by their time constraints and living contexts, their affinity to spend time drinking alcohol with their friends, and, to a lesser extent drunkenness, seemed to continue into the second year. Their transition to university, in one sense, created a context in which they could build upon any predispositions to spend time drinking they may have and experiment further with their alcohol consumption, increasingly free from previous constraints, and, while this continued, albeit, to a lesser extent into their second year, compared with any exuberance associated with their first year patterns of drinking (i.e. they spent just as much, if not more time drinking alcohol, but their drinking was more evenly distributed across the 7 days of the week.

The acquisition of local capital outlined in the previous paragraphs and increasing stability in their leisure repertoires were intrinsic aspects of

second years students group habituses. However, when students reflected back on their drinking in their first year, they frequently expressed that their propensity for drinking alcohol, and, any notion that first year at university (in some students' eyes) was for fun, was part of 'being a first year' M18/NPH2. Transition to second year fostered a desire on their part, to disassociate themselves from these aspects of leisure frequently associated with the first year at university, and, this subsequently manifested in their socializing leisure activities becoming more home-based and adult-like (Furlong, 2013; Jones, 2009; Roberts, 2015).

11.6 Conclusion

Overall, the findings presented from this research suggested that students patterns of time use, how they organize their day-to-day lives in regard of leisure were founded over the life-course, not solely a feature of their student identity, or, of youth per se. Indeed students' biographies and their predispositions for specific leisure typologies, such as the propensity for example, 'sedentariness' or sportiness' were established during childhood at home via parents initially and, subsequently extended family members, friends, peers and role models outside the home, more specifically, school, in a process of secondary socialization (Coalter, 2007; Jones, 2009; Roberts, 2009a). Indeed, young peoples' predispositions were encapsulated by their habitus through their expanding social networks and interdependencies with agents of both primary and secondary socialization (Dunning & Hughes, 2013, Hughes, 2003). Notwithstanding influences of sex and social-class in terms of the formation and subsequent shaping of individual habituses, they are not fixed. That is to say, as youngsters' made the transitions between

the childhood life-stage and youth life-stage and their expanding social networks become inevitably more complex (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Hughes, 2003), traditional sex and social-class boundaries were, to some extent, blurred or in the case of social-class were subject to changing degrees of influence (Green, 2010: 195; Roberts, 2001: 13).

Increasing complexity in young peoples' social networks created a context where their leisure lives began to 'unfreeze', and, they typically took advantage of opportunities to diversify their leisure repertoires and construct preferred identities – self socializing their own biographies through peer selection and accumulating legitimate capital (Green, 2010; Holdsworth, 2005). Indeed, for students making the transition to university, the rapid expansion of their networks of friends and peers was one of the 'turning points' (Feinstein et al., 2007: 307) in which they found opportunity to experiment with new sources of influence on their day-to-day lives and particularly their leisure.

In addition, the overall loosening of previous constraints for some students, specifically those who lived away during term-time, seemingly shaped their daily lives to a comparatively greater extent than those who remained in their parental home, and they undertook a more diverse range of leisure activities (Roberts, 2009; 2015). However, in terms of the drug-oriented leisure lifestyles, specifically their relationship with alcohol, students' tendencies and preferences were intrinsic components of their habituses, and, although these were influenced by their living contexts (particularly during their first year at university), behaviours such as: staying up late with

friends; 'going out' socializing and increased alcohol consumption appeared to be balance in their transitions to second year by increasing workloads – both university course work and paid employment – and the desire to adopt more adult-like identities, with all the responsibilities they are associated with such as: increased focus on their university careers; adopting more home-based leisure activities for their socializing and modifying their consumption of alcohol over the week (Brooks, 2007; Roberts, 2015). The final chapter will put forward the conclusions of the research and examine areas of limitation of the thesis.

Chapter 12

Conclusions

12.1 Introduction

The context for this study was set against a backdrop of widening participation in HE and concerns about students' leisure lives, specifically their relationship with alcohol. Historically, these have tended to be conflated into a perception of the 'stereotypical student' (Brooks, 2007; Roberts, 2014). Notwithstanding successive UK governments increases to the economic costs associated with undertaking a university degree, the student population continues to both increase and diversify (ONS, 2013; UUK, 2014). While there is a plethora of studies examining university students' leisure, and, youth more widely, these tend to focus on 'snapshots' of often single leisure activities such as sport, sedentariness or drinking alcohol. This study sought, therefore, was to understand the reality of university students' day-to-day lives in the round. That is to say, it aimed to contextualize leisure as an aspect of students' biographies, and, further understand the part that drinking alcohol played in students' leisure lives, and how this developed as they moved through their university degree programs.

The present study drew on: identity; socialization and habitus; and, capital accumulation, and sought to answer the following key research questions:

(i) How do university students actually spend their time?
(ii) How do their leisure careers develop as they progress through university, year on year?

(iii) What, if any, is the effect on students' lives (and their leisure careers, in particular) of term-time residence during their university careers?
(iv) How might we explain students' day-to-day leisure lives?

12.2 Theorizing students' leisure lives

These questions have been addressed by studying a panel of students from one university, from which a number of conclusions have been drawn. First, transitioning to university and through students' degree programs was not a homogenous experience for all students. Their patterns of time use were not only shaped by the contours of their specific 'student' context, but were also particularly aligned with their developing habitus (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Elias, 2000; Hughes, 2003). Indeed, the significance of both habitus and capital accumulation over the life-course helps explain the patterns revealed in this study as well as continuity of, and loyalty to, specific leisure activities within their leisure repertoires (Roberts, 2006).

Continuity and loyalty in respect of leisure activities within students' habituses are, to varying degrees, both powerful and deeply embedded in the personal identities of youngsters and were a direct upshot of their own processes of both primary and secondary socialization. In essence, using the examples of time spent drinking alcohol and screen time, parents who accumulated more social and cultural capital over their own life-course, inevitably transmitted this to their children via these processes of socialization (Bourdieu, 1984; Roberts, 2009; 2012). A corollary of this is that students who themselves were likely to possess high levels of social and cultural capital in this regard, were more likely to remain participants in

these aspects of leisure, and the transition to university was an opportunity to build upon their established predispositions for these types of activity or indeed, other sedentary activities in their leisure repertoires (Aldridge et al., 2011; Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Roberts, 2006). That said, students utilized varying degrees of agency, and students modified their patterns of time use to fit with developing social contexts, particularly in their second year (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Elias, 2000; Hughes, 2003).

Second, notwithstanding the significance of processes of socialization, an individual's' habitus is not a fixed state, and is subject to influences over the life-course such as those found within unfolding, and increasingly complex networks of friends and peers (Bourdieu, 1984; De Swann, 2001). Indeed, Roberts (2006) noted, students' lives unfroze around age 16 and became increasingly characterized by an engagement in other uses of leisure that were equally, if not more, appealing because of their ability to confer on students' positive experiences that enabled them to express their individuality, and help construct their identities. Transitions to university, and through the undergraduate process were indeed, a context in which these influences played a significant part in how students managed their time use, and aspects of their leisure lives.

Next, in addition to constructing their preferred identities, students were concerned with belonging, and constructing new group identities among expanding networks of new friends and peers (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Elias, 2000; Hughes, 2003). Indeed, in terms of their day-to-day lives and how drinking alcohol was interwoven with their leisure lives, term-time

residence had a significant influence on their agency and contoured their patterns of time use, for example, drinking. This shaped time use in particular ways depending on student's residential status during term-time (PH or NPH). In terms of NPH students, a fairly rapid process of social network enlargement tended to accompany their transition to university. For PH students, the process of integration with university-based unfolding networks of friends and peers tended to be more drawn out, inevitably providing them with a different perspective on students life (Holdsworth, 2006; 2008). However, over time these differences tended to become more blurred, and for some PH students, they found themselves trading local capital with NPH students. Thus, over time their local home-based networks became, by varying degrees, integrated with unfolding networks of course mates (rather than housemates).

The influence that HE might have on students' leisure repertoires *per se* is difficult to ascertain, but it would seemingly be an arena where for many young people, their leisure lives and relationships with alcohol are indeed, shaped by the social contexts in which they find themselves. Notwithstanding their habitus, there are increased opportunities to undertake new and arguably more exciting leisure activities, which can either build upon or cause tensions in constructing their identities through their leisure activities.

Specific examples include, Haycock's (2014: 325), contention that students' participation in sport and physical activity was impacted as their leisure repertoires were shaped by the increasing appeal of alternatives - such as

more sedentary leisure activities - particularly peer-centered activities such as socializing with friends, which for many students involved drinking alcohol. Indeed, findings from this study showed that students' transitions to second year, in terms of sport and physical activity concurred with those outlined by Haycock (2014). However, the present study found that while leisure was a central feature of students' lives, it was not necessarily used in new and exciting ways. In fact screen time was the main leisure domain occupying significant amounts of time throughout the week.

Moreover, for those reasons outlined in the previous chapter, as youngsters make the transition from childhood through the youth life-stage their leisure repertoires broaden, and they undertake activities that are associated with a status of 'adulthood' to which, the legitimate consumption of alcohol is, to varying degrees, central (Hendry et al., 1996; Aldridge, et al., 2011; Roberts, 2006). However, as Arnett (2006) noted, drinking alcohol to excess and drugs use tend to peak in the early twenties. The main antidote to them comes through partnerships, the stabilizing effects of which extend to holding at bay drug abuse and crime. Indeed, the findings from this study concurred with this view, in that while second year students continued to spend time drinking alcohol, the social contexts in which this drinking took place were different from those during their first year at university. In essence, students preferred to socialize – which included drinking alcohol - with their favoured friendship groups within the home rather than carousing in town or at SU events, as they may have done in their first year.

12.3 Policy implications

The final section of this chapter reflects upon the implications for policy based on the findings reported within this thesis. In empirical terms the research contributes to the methodology of youth research, youth leisure, higher education policy in relation to students' time use and their leisure lives, specifically, their relationship with alcohol.

Research using time use diaries can reveal the detail of students' day-to-day lives in the round. Previous time use studies have tended to focus on either the general population (CTUR, 2013; Gershuny, 2011; Gershuny & Fisher, 1999; Kenyon, 2010; ONS, 2000), or, on specific activities, such as university students' study-related time use (Innis & Shaw, 1997). Indeed, the time use diaries provided both detail and contextual data – concurrent activities, friends and location – on the time students spent drinking alcohol and various other leisure activities over seven days. Collecting these data at different points in time (that is to say, longitudinally), added to the overall understanding of how students' time use was shaped by the undergraduate process, their interactions within expanding social networks and how they constructed contexts in which drinking alcohol, and leisure more generally took place. Therefore, subsequent deployment of both a time-use diary within a longitudinal study design can provide a detailed description of how youngsters more generally use leisure in various social contexts in the construction of their biographies (Dunning & Hughes, 2013; Harnett et al. 2000; Hughes, 2003; Hendry et al. 1993) and how these might change over time as social context develops in particular ways.

Second, previous research has tended to focus on aspects of youth leisure in isolation, such as youth's propensity for screen-based leisure (Biddle, Gorely, et al., 2009; Buckingham, 2008; Marshall et al., 2006; Roberts, 2004), or, the amount of alcohol they drink using quantitative measures such as units of alcohol (Aldridge et al. 2011; Fox, 2011; Measham & Ostergaard, 2009). Notwithstanding the comments above regarding time use diaries, focus groups were used alongside this quantitative instrument to explore social processes that might provide an account of why their time use developed the patterns it did. If youth leisure is to be understood in terms of the reality of youth's day-to-day lives then researchers could utilize mixed methods approaches to provide comprehensive insight into students' use of time.

In terms of higher education policy and practice, it was evident that some first year students, particularly, those living in university accommodation during term-time (NPH) found the transition to university life challenging in a number of ways. For example, a less demanding, and more fragmented timetable than they had been used to during their school years meant that the amount of 'free' time was greater than they were accustomed to. This transition gave rise to boredom, shifting sleep patterns (going to bed and getting up later) and a sense of laziness. Notwithstanding the university's system of pastoral care for their students, a less rigorously enforced system of attendance at formally taught sessions – compared with school, college or work experiences – gave students the discretion to 'skip' lectures they judged to be less necessary or, simply, did not want to attend because of an early start in the morning or the after effects of a night out. If institutions

want their students to adopt a structured 'work ethic' earlier in their university careers, then students need to be constrained towards study-related activities rather than leisure-based activities early on. The difficulties encountered in making the transition to university were particularly evident among NPH students because they were more deeply immersed in university culture than their PH counterparts (Beasley et al., 2004; Holdsworth, 2006; 2009).

That said, PH students also experienced some challenges in their transitions to university life, specifically, in relation to integrating into university culture. This became evident initially during the recruitment phase of the study, and subsequently in their patterns of time use with regard to leisure and paid work. Indeed patterns of leisure time were more normalized to patterns typically found in a non-student population, consistent with the findings of others? (Furlong & Cartmel, 2009; Gershuny, 2011; Roberts, 2006). This can be accounted for in terms of the way they were constrained by their propensity towards undertaking paid work, and balancing this with their university work. Together, this squeezed out time for leisure. One corollary was for some PH students to 'skip' lectures they deemed less necessary. All students were aware of how their first year grades did not count towards their final degree classification. However, if institutions want to maximize the attendance of students to first year lectures, they might give some weight to first year grades and include at least some of the assessments towards the final degree classification. They might also consider systematically recording attendance at first year lectures for students, in a similar fashion to their previous experiences in compulsory education.

Moreover, PH students who found the balance between paid work and university coursework difficult to manage, might require targeted funding and/or additional pastoral care to alleviate the sense of disengagement they reported in the focus groups. Indeed, this might be an area that warrants further examination (Leathwood, 2006; Leathwood & O' Connell, 2003).

Accommodation for first years at the University was rapidly expanding at the time of the research in order to cater for the steadily rising number of student places, and newer facilities tended to be of a higher standard than older facilities. Indeed, some of the latest accommodation included provision for students to watch digital Freeview TV – both communally, and in some instances provided a TV set in students' rooms. This reflects the growing competition between institutions in their efforts to fill student places by various means that go beyond the academic status of the department to which they have applied. Access to TV was a more normalized feature in the private-rented sector, as reflected in second year students' tendency to spend more of their time socializing with their friends indoors, watching TV or DVDs and less time going out. A continued program of investment in older accommodation, in line with the standards of the newest accommodation might mitigate the frequency for going out on such a frequent basis on week-days, and may redistribute the concentrated pattern of week-day drinking over the entire 7-day week, as second year students seemingly preferred. Communal areas in houses might also have a similar effect to the experiences of second year students in the private-rented sector, in that they tended to prefer socializing at home with their social networks of friends.

This study also found that students had the perception of a drinking culture which was intrinsic to student life. Notwithstanding, some element of moral panic with regard to drinking alcohol in terms of the time students actually spent drinking compared with the mainstream media portrayal of a so-called stereotypical student (BBC, 2009; 2011; Piancentini & Bannister, 2006), and the time they spent doing non-alcohol related leisure, for the majority students, socializing tended to be alcohol-centered particularly, among first year NPH students. The way in which Freshers' week was perceived by new students both before they arrived at university, and, the actual experience described by first year students, could be addressed by coordinated policy between the universities and student unions to emphasize the academic aspect of university life alongside 'playing down' the alcohol-centered aspects of student leisure (Harnett et al., 2000; John & Alwyn, 2010; Wechsler et al., 2009) and providing enjoyable alternatives. One measure might be to subsidize on-campus alcohol to a lesser extent in line with current thinking on minimum unitary pricing strategies (BMA, 2009; IAS, 2000; 2010; Marmot, 2010; NHS, 2011).

Alcohol-based socializing was concentrated on week-days during the first year, especially among NPH students who were less constrained by the need to travel to and from the University and tended to undertake less paid work outside of their university course work. The night time economy tended to capitalize on this with targeted marketing to attract students throughout the week. Indeed, during the first few weeks of each new intake, and to a lesser extent throughout the course of the academic year the campus was specifically targeted by fly pitchers handing out a range of vouchers and

flyers to encourage students to patronize pubs, bars and nightclubs. The University actively discourages this practice, although a more intensive practice of enforcement might have a deterrent effect on first year students' propensity to 'go out' more frequently on week-days. Findings in Chapters 8 and 9 demonstrated how the transition to second year had a mediating effect on the frequency that students went out drinking, and showed a preference to undertake more home-based leisure, including drinking with their friends.

That said, the purpose, duration and content of Freshers' week might also be reviewed. For example, universities might want to shorten this introductory week and impress the importance of the first year in terms of academic studies through introductory lectures that form part of the registration process. This might mediate the need for some students to fill their additional spare time 'doing rubbish' (M18-NPH1) during their transition to university.

Moreover, universities could increase the focus on alcohol awareness as a feature during this initial week, and include on-campus team building events which might mediate the sense of urgency to make as many new friends as possible – using alcohol as a social lubricant - that students espoused in Chapter 9. Universities could also work closely with their student unions to create a healthier setting in respect of discounted alcohol sold on-campus. Finally, the way in which students are currently funded could be reviewed (most receive their loans and grants at the start of each term) can encourage some students to make poor decisions with large amounts of money. Indeed, for many students, this is the first time they have lived away from home,

having autonomy with 'the most money ever in my bank account' (M18-NPH2), and a number reported overspending, specifically on alcohol-centered nights out during the initial week or two. Therefore, either increasing the frequency of loan and/or grant payments, or even a system of direct payment to universities might mediate this aspect of their transition.

12.4 Limitations of the research

This study, like most social research, was subject to the 'messiness' of the social world. Notwithstanding the research process that was described in Chapter 3, there are some important limitations that must be considered when drawing any conclusions based on the findings of this study.

First, the student panel was not recruited using a probability sampling strategy. Thus, the panel cannot be viewed as representative of the wider student body from where it came. Similarly, the University cannot be viewed as representative of other universities in the UK. The pane was however, broadly reflective of the diversity of the University population in some key aspects (se, ethnicity and so on). In particular, the panel was comprised of volunteers. That is to say, it comprised those who heard the presentation and were sufficiently interested and/or motivated to attend a subsequent briefing, collect a diary and complete it. In one sense, this was a strength of the study, in that completion of a time use diary over seven days, at two points in time, alongside participation in one or two focus groups required a high degree of commitment. Nonetheless, the fact remains that the sample was a panel of volunteers. These findings are only indicative of students'

patterns of time use throughout their day-to-day lives, particularly their leisure lives, and, specifically their relationship with alcohol.

Second, while the time use diary was judged to be both a valid and reliable instrument for collecting a narrative or 'story', of students' patterns of time use, it is, like many self-report measures, mediated by the diarist, and therefore, subject to inaccuracies (under, and/or over-reporting) in data recording. For example, there may have been a tendency not to report activities the students felt might be irrelevant, risky, or shameful. There might also have been retrospective-recall limitations (Bryman, 2012; CTUR, 2013). Time use diaries can also be susceptible to participant fatigue and diarists can become 'less' diligent in their data recording (Bryman, 2012; CTUR, 2013). In terms of structure of the diary, the diary days were broken into 30 minute time-slots, and this, according to the CTUR (2013) is likely to hinder the collection of some instances where diarists are engaged in multiple concurrent activities. For example, the diarist could be undertaking several screen time activities – both work and social networking activities – while in the company of friends and watching TV, a situation that would be difficult to conceptualize in a 30 minute time span. Therefore, the 30 minute time slots deployed in this study were, to some extent, limited in collecting data that might illustrate the 'finer detail' of students' day-to-day lives. Although an activity code sheet was used to support students, it is unknown how far there was misclassification of activities. Nor can it be known if students did complete the diary prospectively as directed. In reality, all of the issues are likely to have had some impact on the quality of data recording.

Next, the measure of social-class was not as methodologically sound as more robust methods such as those based on income (Roberts 2001). As outlined in Chapter 3, social-class was determined on the basis of the students' family HE history (i.e. a parent or guardian having attended university). One corollary of using this less robust method of measuring students' social-class was that some of the finer distinctions were lost in the process. In addition, the University has a disproportionately English, white middle-class student population, so the panel was also comprised of mainly of students with these characteristics.

12.5 Future research

Areas of future research can be categorized into two main themes – methodology and students' leisure. In terms of methodology limitations of the research could be addressed and a more detailed understanding of students' day-to-day lives might emerge. For example, by utilizing regression analysis of the data to aid further understand relationships between sub-groups of students. Moreover, the further use of longitudinal research designs to track developments among students, and a move away from unitary-based alcohol research may facilitate a more ecologically valid understanding of the 'reality' of how alcohol is interwoven through the leisure lives of students, and, youth more widely.

Second, continued research into young peoples' transitions over the life course can only serve to inform current knowledge, and indeed, move that knowledge forward with a more adequate understanding of the broader

social processes that underlie these transitions, as Heath et al. (2009: 15) noted:

> Youth research remains an important enterprise, contributing to a greater understanding of broader processes of social change, and critically, providing important opportunities for young people, if we allow them to set the agenda in a context within which their voices are all too often ignored or underplayed.

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Appendix 1

List of activity and location codes

Time use codes

Activity codes

Academic study
01 – Lecture/Seminar/lab/ tutorial/other formal scheduled timetabled session
02 – Studying/reading/writing up assignment (outside lectures etc.)

Chores/necessities
03 – Travelling to/from University
04 – Sleeping
05 – Eating
06 – Cooking/preparing meal
07 – Shopping for necessities (groceries, etc.)
08 – Working (paid)
09 – Looking after someone
10 – Walking the dog/looking after pet

Leisure time
11 – Working (voluntary)
12 – Reading for pleasure (non-course) (newspaper, book, etc)
13 – Using Facebook/Twitter/other social network
14 – Using the Internet (other than for Facebook/Twitter/other social network)
15 – Downloading music/YouTube/iPlayer
16 – Video gaming
17 – Watching TV/DVD
18 – Listening to music (iPod/CDs/Radio in home/car/on the move)
19 – Shopping for pleasure
20 – Society/club meeting
21 – Going to see a film/play/concert
22 – Exercise/Sport/gym/keep-fit/going for a run (including University sport matches)
23 – Hobby (non-sporting)
24 – Religious worship
25 – Day out (other than shopping for pleasure)
26 – Chatting with friends
27 – Going to a party
28 – Going out for a meal
29 – Going out for a drink
30 – Drinking alcohol
31 – Drinking tea/coffee/juice
32 – Travelling to do something (not to/from University)
33 – Dancing
34 – Getting ready
00 – Other

Location codes

A – Parental home
B – Uni Own room
C – Uni Common room (or kitchen)
D – Friends home/room (on-campus)
D1 – Friends home/room (off-campus)
E – Lecture theatre/seminar room/lab/tutor's room
G – Library
H – Computer room
I – At work/Placement
J – Café/fast food outlet/restaurant
K – Night club
L – The gym/pool (off-campus or on-campus)
M – SU Bar
N - Cinema/theatre/concert venue
P – Shopping centre/retail park
Q – Pub/Bar
R – SU Starbucks
S – SU shop/lounge
T – Campus refectory/café
V – Chapel/church (off-campus or on-campus)
W – Bed
X – Bus
Y – Train
Z – Car
AA - outside
00 - Other

Please be as accurate as you can with these codes

If you are uncertain about which code to use, please contact the researcher
Lee Wilson: Telephone 01244 – 512116 or email lee.wilson@chester.ac.uk
Alternatively, you may join and post your question in the Facebook group 'Chester leisure Study'

Appendix 2

7-Day time use diary

University of Chester

Survey of Time use

7 Day Diary

Researcher Use Only

Participant No: _____

Diary No: _____

Day 1 Date: _ _ /_ _ /_ _ _ _

Diary Days: _____--_____

Residential status: _____

This diary will help us find out a lot of useful information about how students in this institution spend their leisure time. Please make sure this diary is filled in by the person named below, and is for the day recorded below.

Any information you provide will be treated in strict confidence and will be used for research purposes only. If you have any difficulties or questions, please telephone Lee Wilson on 01244 - 512116 between 10.00am and 5.00pm Monday to Friday and he will return your call, or email at lee.wilson@chester.ac.uk

Name of Participant: _____

Dates to which this diary refers: _ _ /_ _ /_ _ _ _ - _ _ /_ _ /_ _ _ _

Please read these instructions before you start.

It should be quite easy to fill in this diary. It will be even easier if you first read these instructions and look at the example on page 4.

Everything that people might do is important. However boring or irrelevant you feel that something is, please enter the appropriate code from those printed on page 5 into the diary. There is an additional code sheet provided for you to use as a page-marker when using this diary.

What were you doing?

In the column "What were you doing?" we would like you to write in what you were doing for each 30 minute section of the day. On page 4 is an example of a completed diary. If you have a look at it you will get an idea of how we would like you to complete your diary.

It may seem like a lot of work to write in what you were doing for every 30 minutes of the day. If you were doing the same thing for more than 30 minutes you can use an arrow instead of having to write in the same code lots of times.

If there is no code for what you were doing please use 'other' and make a note of the activity which we can then discuss at the focus group if appropriate.

Where were you?

If you were in the same place for more than 30 minutes please use an arrow - as is shown in the example on page 4.

Who were you with?

Please show if you were with anybody by putting a cross in the appropriate boxes. Have a look at the example on page 4. You can use a line to show how long you were with anybody, but put a cross in the box when you stop being with them.

To be with somebody does not always mean that you do things together, but that you are in the same place – like in the same house, on the same bus or at a party. If you were with a group of people please indicate how many as shown in the example on page 4. Please indicate if these people are house-mates, course-mates or friends outside of university, by following the example on page 4. If you are in a large lecture, just use a single X, do not try and count all the people.

Please read these instructions and complete before you start.

Daily and weekly expenditure.

We are interested in your daily and weekly expenditure. Please complete the daily expenditure table on each page of the diary, as you go, on a daily basis. It doesn't matter how trivial any purchase might seem, the data you provide will provide an insight to the daily lives of students, and is therefore important to this study. Use the categories provided for purchases or use OTHER if you're not sure.

Weekly expenditure is equally important. Please use the categories printed below on this page and enter how much you spend over the course of a typical term week. Again, use OTHER if you're not sure.

Typical term-Week Expenditure

Typical term-week expenditure	**Money spent weekly £ nearest**		
Item description – Living costs	**Money (£)**	**Item description – Course related**	**Money (£)**
		Books	
Food (excluding snacks)		Computers	
Non-course travel (going home etc)		Equipment	
Accommodation (University rent or home rent)		Printing, photocopying, stationary	
Other		Other	
Weekly Total		**Weekly Total**	

Final section.

When you have filled in the diary and expenditure table there are some questions we would like you to answer at the end, on pages 20 - 24. **Please complete these questions and contact the researcher to arrange collection of the survey.**

Any information you provide will be treated in strict confidence and will be used for research purposes only. If you have any difficulties please telephone Lee Wilson on 01244 - 512116 between 10.00am and 5.00pm Monday to Friday and he will return your call or email at lee.wilson@chester.ac.uk

This is an example of how you might complete your diary.

These entries show a residential student at a seminar (02), working on an assignment (07), On-campus (F) and with 8 course mates. Followed by, exercising (12), while listening to music (25) at the gym (L) alone for an hour. The student returns to their Uni accommodation common-room/kitchen (C) and makes a meal (22), while listening to music (25) with 1 house-mate. Next, the main activity is chatting with mates (24) and drinking alcohol (16), in their common-room / kitchen (C) with 3 house-mates and 1 course-mate (3X) and (X). Finally, the evening is rounded off by eating (13) in a friends room (D) with 3 house-mates, before returning to their own room (B) and going to sleep (11).

Day 1	**What were you doing?** Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	**What else were you doing?** Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	**Where were you?** E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	**Were you with anybody?** Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4				
Evening				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**
19:00-19:30	02	07	F		8X			
19:30-20:00	02	07	F		8X			
20:00-20:30	12	25	L	X				
20:30-21:00	12	25	L	X				
21:00-21:30	22	25	C				X	
21:30-22:00	24	16	↓		X		3X	
22:00-22:30	↓	↓	↓		↓		↓	
22:30-23:00	↓	↓	↓		↓		↓	
23:00-23:30	↓	↓	↓		X		↓	
23:30-00:00	13	24	D				3X	
00:00-00:30	24	25	D					
00:30-01:00	11	↓	B	X				
01:00-01:30	↓	↓	↓	↓				
01:30-02:00	↓	↓	↓	↓				

Day 1 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Item description	**£**
Clothes, shoes, accessories	
Phone bills	
Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
Toiletries	
Music, DVD downloads	
Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
Cigarettes and tobacco	3
Prescriptions, medicines	
Snacks	3
Miscellaneous small items	2
Alcohol consumed outside the home	
Alcohol bought for home	5
Cinema, theatre, concerts	
Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	

Please remember. If you have any difficulties please telephone Lee Wilson on 01244 - 512116 between 10.00am and 5.00pm Monday to Friday and he will return your call or email at lee.wilson@chester.ac.uk

Time use codes

Activity codes

Academic study
01 – Lecture/Seminar/lab/ tutorial/other formal scheduled timetabled session
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08 – Working (paid)
09 – Looking after someone
10 – Walking the dog/looking after pet

Leisure time
11 – Working (voluntary)
12 – Reading for pleasure (non-course) (newspaper, book, etc)
13 – Using Facebook/Twitter/other social network
14 – Using the Internet (other than for Facebook/Twitter/other social network)
15 – Downloading music/YouTube/iPlayer
16 – Video gaming
17 – Watching TV/DVD
18 – Listening to music (iPod/CDs/Radio in home/car/on the move)
19 – Shopping for pleasure
20 – Society/club meeting
21 – Going to see a film/play/concert
22 – Exercise/Sport/gym/keep-fit/going for a run (including University sport matches)
23 – Hobby (non-sporting)
24 – Religious worship
25 – Day out (other than shopping for pleasure)
26 – Chatting with friends
27 – Going to a party
28 – Going out for a meal
29 – Going out for a drink
30 – Drinking alcohol
31 – Drinking tea/coffee/juice
32 – Travelling to do something (not to/from University)
33 – Dancing
34 – Getting ready
00 – Other

Location codes

A – Parental home
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D – Friends home/room (on-campus)
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E – Lecture theatre/seminar room/lab/tutor's room
G – Library
H – Computer room
I – At work/Placement
J – Café/fast food outlet/restaurant
K – Night club
L – The gym/pool (off-campus or on-campus)
M – SU Bar
N - Cinema/theatre/concert venue
P – Shopping centre/retail park
Q – Pub/Bar
R – SU Starbucks
S – SU shop/lounge
T – Campus refectory/café
V – Chapel/church (off-campus or on-campus)
W – Bed
X – Bus
Y – Train
Z – Car
AA - outside
00 - Other

Please be as accurate as you can with these codes

If you are uncertain about which code to use, please contact the researcher Lee Wilson: Telephone 01244 – 512116 or email lee.wilson@chester.ac.uk Alternatively, you may join and post your question in the Facebook group 'Chester leisure Study'

Day 1	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 1 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Morning				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
7:00 – 7:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
7:30– 8:00										Phone bills	
8:00 – 8:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
8:30 – 9:00										Toiletries	
9:00 – 9:30										Music, DVD downloads	
9:30 – 10:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
10:00-10:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
10:30-11:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
11:00-11:30										Snacks	
11:30-12:00										Miscellaneous small items	
12:00-12:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
12:30-13:00										Alcohol bought for home	
13:00-13:30										Cinema, theatre, concerts	
13:30-14:00										Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	
14:00-14:30										Nightclubs, discos	
14:30-15:00										National lottery, betting	
15:00-15:30										Religious activities	
15:30-16:00										Other	
16:00-16:30											
16:30-17:00											
17:00-17:30											
17:30-18:00											
18:00-18:30											
18:30-19:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Day 1	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 1 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Evening				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
19:00-19:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
19:30-20:00										Phone bills	
20:00-20:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
20:30-21:00										Toiletries	
21:00-21:30										Music, DVD downloads	
21:30-22:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
22:00-22:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
22:30-23:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
23:00-23:30										Snacks	
23:30-00:00										Miscellaneous small items	
00:00-00:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
00:30-01:00										Alcohol bought for home	
01:00-01:30										Cinema, theatre, concerts	
01:30-02:00										Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	
02:00-02:30										Nightclubs, discos	
02:30-03:00										National lottery, betting	
03:00-03:30										Religious activities	
03:30-04:00										Other	
04:00-04:30											
04:30-05:00											
05:00-05:30											
05:30-06:00											
06:00-06:30											
06:30-07:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Day 2	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 2 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Morning				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
7:00 – 7:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
7:30– 8:00										Phone bills	
8:00 – 8:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
8:30 – 9:00										Toiletries	
9:00 – 9:30										Music, DVD downloads	
9:30 – 10:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
10:00-10:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
10:30-11:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
11:00-11:30										Snacks	
11:30-12:00										Miscellaneous small items	
12:00-12:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
12:30-13:00										Alcohol bought for home	
13:00-13:30										Cinema, theatre, concerts	
13:30-14:00										Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	
14:00-14:30										Nightclubs, discos	
14:30-15:00										National lottery, betting	
15:00-15:30										Religious activities	
15:30-16:00										Other	
16:00-16:30											
16:30-17:00											
17:00-17:30											
17:30-18:00											
18:00-18:30											
18:30-19:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Day 2	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 2 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Evening				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
19:00-19:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
19:30-20:00										Phone bills	
20:00-20:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
20:30-21:00										Toiletries	
21:00-21:30										Music, DVD downloads	
21:30-22:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
22:00-22:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
22:30-23:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
23:00-23:30										Snacks	
23:30-00:00										Miscellaneous small items	
00:00-00:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
00:30-01:00										Alcohol bought for home	
01:00-01:30										Cinema, theatre, concerts	
01:30-02:00										Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	
02:00-02:30										Nightclubs, discos	
02:30-03:00										National lottery, betting	
03:00-03:30										Religious activities	
03:30-04:00										Other	
04:00-04:30											
04:30-05:00											
05:00-05:30											
05:30-06:00											
06:00-06:30											
06:30-07:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Day 3	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 3 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Morning				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
7:00 – 7:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
7:30– 8:00										Phone bills	
8:00 – 8:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
8:30 – 9:00										Toiletries	
9:00 – 9:30										Music, DVD downloads	
9:30 – 10:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
10:00-10:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
10:30-11:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
11:00-11:30										Snacks	
11:30-12:00										Miscellaneous small items	
12:00-12:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
12:30-13:00										Alcohol bought for home	
13:00-13:30										Cinema, theatre, concerts	
13:30-14:00										Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	
14:00-14:30										Nightclubs, discos	
14:30-15:00										National lottery, betting	
15:00-15:30										Religious activities	
15:30-16:00										Other	
16:00-16:30											
16:30-17:00											
17:00-17:30											
17:30-18:00											
18:00-18:30											
18:30-19:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Day 3	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 3 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Evening				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
19:00-19:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
19:30-20:00										Phone bills	
20:00-20:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
20:30-21:00										Toiletries	
21:00-21:30										Music, DVD downloads	
21:30-22:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
22:00-22:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
22:30-23:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
23:00-23:30										Snacks	
23:30-00:00										Miscellaneous small items	
00:00-00:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
00:30-01:00										Alcohol bought for home	
01:00-01:30										Cinema, theatre, concerts	
01:30-02:00										Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	
02:00-02:30										Nightclubs, discos	
02:30-03:00										National lottery, betting	
03:00-03:30										Religious activities	
03:30-04:00										Other	
04:00-04:30											
04:30-05:00											
05:00-05:30											
05:30-06:00											
06:00-06:30											
06:30-07:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Day 4	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 4 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Morning				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
7:00 – 7:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
7:30– 8:00										Phone bills	
8:00 – 8:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
8:30 – 9:00										Toiletries	
9:00 – 9:30										Music, DVD downloads	
9:30 – 10:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
10:00-10:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
10:30-11:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
11:00-11:30										Snacks	
11:30-12:00										Miscellaneous small items	
12:00-12:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
12:30-13:00										Alcohol bought for home	
13:00-13:30										Cinema, theatre, concerts	
13:30-14:00										Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	
14:00-14:30										Nightclubs, discos	
14:30-15:00										National lottery, betting	
15:00-15:30										Religious activities	
15:30-16:00										Other	
16:00-16:30											
16:30-17:00											
17:00-17:30											
17:30-18:00											
18:00-18:30											
18:30-19:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Day 4	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 4 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Evening				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
19:00-19:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
19:30-20:00										Phone bills	
20:00-20:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
20:30-21:00										Toiletries	
21:00-21:30										Music, DVD downloads	
21:30-22:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
22:00-22:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
22:30-23:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
23:00-23:30										Snacks	
23:30-00:00										Miscellaneous small items	
00:00-00:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
00:30-01:00										Alcohol bought for home	
01:00-01:30										Cinema, theatre, concerts	
01:30-02:00										Sports, hobbies, clubs, societies	
02:00-02:30										Nightclubs, discos	
02:30-03:00										National lottery, betting	
03:00-03:30										Religious activities	
03:30-04:00										Other	
04:00-04:30											
04:30-05:00											
05:00-05:30											
05:30-06:00											
06:00-06:30											
06:30-07:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Day 5	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 5 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Morning				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
7:00 – 7:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
7:30– 8:00										Phone bills	
8:00 – 8:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
8:30 – 9:00										Toiletries	
9:00 – 9:30										Music, DVD downloads	
9:30 – 10:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
10:00-10:30										Cigarettes and tobacco	
10:30-11:00										Prescriptions, medicines	
11:00-11:30										Snacks	
11:30-12:00										Miscellaneous small items	
12:00-12:30										Alcohol consumed outside the home	
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14:00-14:30										Nightclubs, discos	
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18:30-19:00											

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Evening				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
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20:00-20:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
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06:30-07:00											

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Day 6	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 6 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Morning				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
7:00 – 7:30										Clothes, shoes, accessories	
7:30– 8:00										Phone bills	
8:00 – 8:30										Gifts, cards (birthdays etc)	
8:30 – 9:00										Toiletries	
9:00 – 9:30										Music, DVD downloads	
9:30 – 10:00										Newspapers, magazines, non-course books	
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06:30-07:00											

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Day 7	What were you doing? Please record your main activity for each 30 minute period. Enter one main activity on each line. (see attached category list for codes)	What else were you doing? Write in the most important activity you were doing at the same time. e.g. Listening to the radio, having a drink, or eating etc. (see attached category list for codes)	Where were you? E.g. At home, at a friends, walking, cycling, on bus, train or in a car.	Were you with anybody? Put an X in the box to indicate who you were with. Use a 3X if you were with 3 people as in the example on page 4						Day 7 Daily expenses To the nearest £	
Morning				**Alone**	**Course -mate**	**Other-friend**	**House-mate**	**Parent**		**Item description**	**£**
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06:30-07:00											

NB: Please only use the time-use activity codes printed on page 5 to complete this diary, and round up to the nearest £ on the daily expenses section.

Final Section

Please complete this final section before handing in the completed survey to the researcher.

FS1 Name : _____ **FS2 Age: _____** **FS3 Sex: _____**

FS4 Degree course: _____ **FS5 Marital status: _____**

Contact Tel: _____ **Contact email: _____**

Term-time address: _____

_____

_____

FS6 – How would you rate your health compared to other people of the same age and sex?

Excellent ☐ Very good ☐ Good ☐ Fair ☐ Poor ☐ Very poor ☐

FS7 Which of the following statements, if any, best describes you?

White British	☐	White – any other	☐	Mixed-White & Black Caribbean	☐
Mixed-White and Black African	☐	Mixed-White & Asian	☐	Mixed-White & any other mixed	☐
Asian or Asian British-Indian	☐	Asian or Asian British-Pakistani	☐	Asian or Asian British-Bangladeshi	☐
Asian or Asian British-Any other	☐	Black or Black British-Caribbean	☐	Black or Black British-African	☐
Black or Black British-Any other	☐	Chinese	☐	Ethnic group not listed here	☐

If 'ethnic group not listed here', please write here:_____

FS8 Which of the following, if any, best describes your religious background?

I do not follow any religion	☐	Hindu	☐	Sikh	☐	Buddhist	☐	Catholic	☐
Church of England/Protestant	☐	Muslim	☐	Jewish	☐	Religion not listed here	☐		

If 'religion not listed here', please write here:_____

FS9 Which of the following jobs, or job sectors, best describes the type of regular paid job you do during term-time at university? If none, please write 'none' below.

Shop/supermarket ☐ Pub, bar, restaurant or hotel ☐ Call centre ☐

Manual labour/ building industry ☐ Leisure centre/industry ☐ Other ☐ None ☐

If 'other' please write here:_____

FS10 On average, approximately how many paid hours do you usually work each week during term-time at university?

None ☐ Less than 1 hour ☐ 1 – 4 Hours ☐ 5 – 8 Hours ☐

9 – 12 Hours ☐ 13 – 16 Hours ☐ 17 – 20 Hours ☐ 21 hours or more ☐

FS11 On average, approximately how much do you usually earn each week from your regular paid job during term-time at university?

None ☐ Up to £20.00 ☐ £20.01-£30.00 ☐ £30.01-£50.00 ☐

£50.01-£80.00 ☐ £80.01-£110.00 ☐ £110.00 or more ☐

FS12 Which, if any, of the following other regular forms of financial income or support do you receive during term-time at university? If none, please write 'none' below.

None ☐ Tuition fee loan ☐ Maintenance loan ☐ Full student bursary ☐ Part student bursary ☐

Regular financial support from parents ☐ Regular financial support from any other relatives ☐ Other ☐

If 'none or other' please write in here:_____

FS13 Do you have any dependent relatives (e.g. A child or family relative that you care for or support financially)?

Yes ☐ No ☐

FS14 Do you have a disability or long-term illness?

Yes ☐ No ☐

FS15 Do you currently have any formally recognised special educational need(s)?

Yes ☐ No ☐

FS16 Of the following immediate family, which, if any, have attended higher education (e.g. university)?

Father/male guardian ☐ Mother/female guardian ☐ Brother/sister ☐ None ☐

FS17 What is your highest educational qualification you have obtained up to now?

GNVQ ☐ BTEC ☐ AS-Level ☐ GCSE ☐

HND ☐ A-Level ☐ NVQ ☐ Access to HE ☐

International Baccalaureate ☐ Other ☐

Other here:_____

FS18 Which of the following kinds of institutions best describes the secondary school you attended?

Selective state school (e.g. Grammar school) ☐ Private or public school ☐

Other state school (e.g. Comprehensive school) ☐ None of these ☐

If 'None of these' please write here:_____

Thank you for completing this Time use/budget survey.

Please can you check that all fields in the main diary are complete, and that you have filled in the daily expenses sections for each day, pages 6-19.

Please check you have completed your estimated weekly expenses section on page 3.

Please check that you have answered all the questions in the final section, pages 20-24.

The researcher will contact you to arrange collection of the diary, and discuss a convenient time for you to come along to the focus group.

Appendix 3

PowerPoint presentation

University of Chester

ALCOHOL RESEARCH UK
Reducing alcohol-related harm

Students' leisure lifestyles

Lee Scott Wilson
Faculty of Applied Sciences

lee.wilson@chester.ac.uk
Tel: 01244 512116

University of Chester

Study rationale

- Explore your time use & leisure activities
- Examine how these activities may develop over time
- Investigate the relevance of residential status on your leisure activities
- Relate to perceptions others may have of students (e.g. media, general public, non-university friends)

University of Chester

Study methodology

- Longitudinal study of time use and budgeting
- Focus groups (after Easter break)
- Next steps…
- Main campus library Pod 4 12pm & 4pm

Appendix 4

Consent-to-be-contacted-slip

University of Chester

Student Consent to be contacted slip

Title of Project: The influence of residential status in the development of university students' leisure lifestyles

Name of Researcher: Lee Scott Wilson

Please initial

1. I confirm that I have listened to the PowerPoint presentation for the above study and I would like to attend one of the briefing meetings to find out more information. I consent to the researcher contacting me, and provide my details below: ☐

Name: **Age:**

Mobile: **email:**

Degree course:

Residential status: Parents or own home - University campus
(please circle your TERM -TIME address)

Preferred meeting time in Library Pod 4 either: Lunch 12pm – 12:20
(please indicate your preference) 12:20 – 12:40
12:40 – 1pm

Or: Afternoon 4pm – 4:20
4:20 – 4:40
4:40 – 5pm

Appendix 5

Participant information sheet

University of Chester

Participant Information Sheet

The influence of residential status in the development of university students' leisure lifestyles

What is the purpose of the study?
This study aims to gather data on how students spend their leisure time in general and how this may develop over time. Furthermore, this study aims to investigate any differences there might be between students who reside on-campus, in different types of accommodation, and those who reside off-campus. The findings from this study will be written up for my thesis.

Why have I been chosen?
You have been chosen because you are a first year university student, studying at the University of Chester as a full time student.

Do I have to take part?
It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part, then please indicate your interest by completing the consent form and handing it back to the researcher. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

What will happen if I do take part?
If you agree to participate then you will be issued with a time/spending diary which covers 1 week. You will be given clear instructions in how to complete the diary and the contact details of the researcher in case of any questions arising. Following completion of the diary there will be a focus group session with the researcher and some fellow students (lasting about 1 hour) during which you will be asked to reflect on how your leisure lives have developed while you have been at university. This process will be repeated in January 2013. At the end of the study you will be reimbursed with Tesco vouchers worth £25 for your time and commitment.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?
There are no disadvantages or risks foreseen in taking part in this study.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?
By taking part you will provide valuable data which will provide an insight about the varied aspects of student leisure lifestyles.

What if something goes wrong?
If you wish to complain or have any concerns about any aspect of the way you have been approached or treated during the course of this study, please contact: Professor Sarah Andrew, Dean of the Faculty of Applied and Health Sciences, University of Chester, Parkgate Road, Chester, CH1 4BJ. Tel: 01244 513055.

Appendix 6

Full consent form

University of Chester

Student Consent form

Title of Project: The influence of residential status in the development of university students' leisure lifestyles

Name of Researcher: Lee Scott Wilson

Please initial

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated .....for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask any questions. ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free To withdraw at any time, without giving any reason and without my care or legal rights being affected. ☐

3. I agree to take part in the diary element of the above study. ☐

4. I agree to take part in the focus group element of the above study. ☐

Name of Participant	Date	Signature

Researcher	Date	Signature

(*1 for participant; 1 for researcher*)

Appendix 7

Invitation to participate: mailshot

University of Chester

Student's leisure lifestyles

Dear Student

I am a postgraduate research student working on my PhD. For this project, I am seeking your help by taking part in a study examining leisure lifestyle behaviours of first year undergraduate students at the University of Chester. You may have already seen me present this study at one of your lectures, and you may have even taken a diary and decided to withdraw. The reason I am writing to you now, is because I need to increase the number of participants that live in the parental home while attending university.

By agreeing to take part, you will complete a time-use/budget diary over 1 week in March/April 2012 which is essentially focussed on your leisure time. (I.e. time spent out of lectures and study time). You will also be asked to attend a focus group session (which will last about an hour with the researcher and some fellow students to reflect on how your leisure time may have been influenced by coming to university.

This process will be repeated in February/March 2013, where you will be asked to reflect upon the previous 12 months. The focus groups will take place at a mutually convenient time at the University of Chester campus. Because it is acknowledged that participation requires a level of commitment to the project, at the end of the study you will be reimbursed in the form of £25 of Tesco vouchers.

If you would like to take part in this research, please complete the consent to be contacted reply slip and return it to me using the Freepost envelope enclosed. Please feel free to contact me (see below) with any questions you may have regarding this research.

Kind Regards, Lee

Lee Scott Wilson
Postgraduate researcher
Faculty of Applied Sciences
University of Chester
Parkgate Road
Tower 604
CH1 4BJ

Tel: 01244 512116
lee.wilson@chester.ac.uk

Appendix 8

Focus group schedule

Focus Group Schedule **Session No:** 1

Date: **Time:** **Venue:**

Participant information:

Name	Age	M/F	Degree course	Res	P/No
Non-parental home					
Parental home					

Facilitator: **Duration of session:** _____ mins

Scribe: **Audio equipment:** Marantz PMD660

- **Seating arrangements should be in a circle**
- **Welcome participants**
- **Check who's here**
- **Check that everyone is OK for time/doesn't have to leave early**
- **Offer refreshments while people are coming in and settling down**
- **Get signed consent form for audio recording purposes (need PIS for this)**

INTRODUCTION/WELCOME

Welcome and thank you very much for being here, it's much appreciated.

A quick word about the composition of the group: you have all consented to take part in the study and so far have completed a 7-day time-use diary; the focus group is the next stage all. So, you are all first year, full-time students of the University of Chester, from a variety of subject areas.

Before we get going, can I start with a few general comments to focus us on what we're here for.

- First of all, as you know, what we are interested in is how you, as a university student, spend your time (and it's the first of its kind!)

- Second, you've all completed a 7-day time use diary, which has given us a lot of quantitative data, but here in the focus group we want to understand in more detail what influences what you do, and what you think about how you spend your time. So, there are no right or wrong answers here –we're genuinely interested in exploring your perspectives on your university lives.

- Finally, I want to reassure you that everything that you say today will be treated confidentially (i.e. it will only be seen by those directly involved in the project – Lee, me and Lee's two other supervisors one of whom works at the University of xxxxxxxx and the third here at xxxxxx). We are all bound by a code of conduct relating to research ethics which we take very seriously. Anything published from this study – Lee's PhD thesis, and any academic papers – will maintain the anonymity of all participants, in other words, no names will be used. The recording and diaries will be destroyed at the end of the study. You can, of course, withdraw from the study at any point with no questions asked!

Has anyone got any questions? **OK, let's make a start**

THE QUESTION LINE

1. **WARM-UP QUESTIONS/INTRODUCTORY QUESTIONS**

- I want to start by asking you how you found completing the time-use diary? (i.e. How did you go about it? Did you experience any difficulties?)
- Did it reveal tell you anything about your weekly time use?
- Can any of you tell us anything about the 'other' activities: what were they?
- Did it tell you anything, in particular, about how you use your (spare) time?

- Do you have any ideas about what our analysis of the diaries as a whole will reveal? (eg Main uses of time; ideas about how students may to similar and different and how they would explain this)

KEY QUESTIONS

2. TRANSITION TO UNIVERSITY=

- How does how you spend your time now compare with before you came to university? (Are there things you're doing more/less of? Are you doing 'new'things'? such as …. Are there things you're not doing that you'd like to? If yes, why is that? Are you doing things with different/the same people and if so who are they?)

- (If there are differences ...) How would you explain that? (Parents, friends, money, facilities, where you live …)

3. KEY DOMAINS OF TIME-USE

LEISURE LIVES (SPARE TIME)

- When I talk about leisure, I'm talking about those things you do in your free time i.e. after work – either paid or university – and things you feel obliged to do, such as the laundry, washing-up, doing the shopping etc.

- So, in terms of leisure, what do you think your main uses of leisure time are (that is to say, the main things you choose to do in your spare time)?

- If you had to rank order your leisure activities in order of importance to you, what would the order be?

- If you had to rank order your leisure activities in terms of time spent on them, what do you think the order would be?

- How do you decide what to do, when and where, in your leisure time?

- Who do you do these things with, mainly?

- Where does sport and physical active recreation fit into your typical leisure lives?

- What would you say if I said that the diaries are beginning to show that little exercise appears to be done?

- What would you say if I said that the diaries show that drinking alcohol began as a main activity for both groups around mid-evening on Saturdays (i.e. 7pm ish)?

- Our initial analysis seems to be showing that students who live in university accommodation are more likely to do things with their friends. How would you explain that?

SLEEPING

- How do your sleeping patterns compare to before you were a university student?

- Our preliminary analysis of the diaries seems to be suggesting that there may be some differences between students according to whether they live in university residential accommodation compared to those who live at home with their parents. For example, on both Wednesdays and Saturdays those living with their parents tended to be sleeping before midnight while those not living in the parental home were more likely to be watching TV/out for a drink/or having a drink? How would you explain that?

- … and that half of while those not living in the parental home were still not in bed in the early hours of Thursday and Sunday morning (c3 am)?

SCREEN AND SOCIAL MEDIA TIME

- Can you talk me through where and how TV and ICT fit into your lives? (Are they things you do alongside other things?)
- Can you talk me through where and how social media (such as Facebook and Twitter) fit into your lives? (Are they things you do alongside other things?)

PAID WORK AND STUDY

- How many of you do paid work (part-time presumably)? (Did you start your current job since coming to university?)
- How does paid work fit into your weekly lives (as students)? ? (i.e. how do balance paid work with university work/study and your leisure lives?)
- For you, what's the main reason for doing paid work?
- Our preliminary analysis from the diaries seems to be suggesting that you are more likely to work if you are a residential student compared to those students who live at home with their parents. How would you explain that?
- Does anyone do voluntary work? (If so, where, when and what do you get out of it?)

FINANCES

- How do you finance (pay for) your leisure lives?

PARENTS

- How does your relationship with your parents compare with before you came to university? (Before/ now) How would you explain that?
- Do you talk to your parents and siblings about your university life? (and what you're doing/how you're spending your time)
- What do you say to them? What do you do with them?
- What do they say to you?

FRIENDS

- Can you tell me something about your friendship groups; for example, how you've become friendly with particular people?
- Can you talk me through what kinds of activities you tend to do with friends?

HEALTH

- Our preliminary analysis of the diaries seems to be showing that students not living in university accommodation (university residents) tend to rate their health as worse than those living in the parental home. How would you explain that?

4. ENDING QUESTIONS

- Summing up
- Have we missed anything?

THANK YOU ALL VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND PARTICIPATION.

Appendix 9

Mid-term student social calendar

Term-time social calendar for students

Monday
Student night at Club 'A' - nightclub. City center, open from 9pm – 4am, student only night with free entry and discounted drinks. Advertised through Student Union flyers and Facebook group.

Tuesday
Bar A – City center, open from 10am – 2am, student oriented night with free entry (student ID card) and half price drinks. Free bar tab prize draw every week advertised through flyers and Facebook group.

Wednesday
Club 'B' – nightclub. City Centre, open from 10pm – 4am, student only night. Drinks from £1. Advertised through flyers and Facebook group.

Thursday
3-in-a-bed – Bar 'A', Bar 'B', and Club 'B'. A drink in the first two will get you free entry to Club 'B's, student-only night, drinks from £1 and free shots with some drinks. Advertised through flyers and Facebook group.

Friday
SU Friday – bar on-campus. Student only night with D.J.s and further discounted drinks. Advertised on SU website, on-campus through posters and Facebook group.

Saturday
I am VIP – Bar 'A'. Open from 9am – 2am, student friendly night with discounted entry (student ID card) and drinks. Advertised through flyers and Facebook group. Prizes for best costumes and photos published on Facebook.

Sunday
Comedy and Quiz night – SU bar on-campus. Student only night, various comedy acts, and regular pub style quiz, discounted drinks. Advertised on SU website, on-campus through posters and Facebook group.

NB: The Student Union bar is open 7 days a week during term-time from Midday - 12pm and is located centrally on the main campus. This is not and exhaustive list of student only or student friendly establishments in the City.

Appendix 10

Ethical approval letter

University of Chester

Faculty of Applied Sciences
Research Ethics Committee

Tel 01244 511740
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frec@chester.ac.uk

Lee Scott Wilson
Postgraduate Researcher
Faculty of Applied Sciences
Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences
University of Chester
Parkgate Road
Chester
CH1 4BJ

5th January 2012

Dear Lee,

Study title: **A sociological analysis of the significance of residing at university in facilitating and consolidating young people's leisure lives, with reference to their consumption of alcohol.**
FREC reference: **620/11/LW/FAS**
Version number: **1**

Thank you for sending your application to the Faculty of Applied Sciences Research Ethics Committee for review.

I am pleased to confirm ethical approval for the above research, provided that you comply with the conditions set out in the attached document, and adhere to the processes described in your application form and supporting documentation.

The final list of documents reviewed and approved by the Committee is as follows:

Document	Version	Date
Application Form	1	November 2011
Appendix 1 – List of References	1	November 2011
Appendix 2 – C.V. for Lead Researcher	1	November 2011
Appendix 3 – Letter of Invitation to Participants	1	November 2011
Appendix 4 – Participant Information Sheet	1	November 2011
Appendix 5 – Participant Consent Form	1	November 2011
Appendix 6 – Written permission from MIS Team, Registry Services	1	November 2011
Appendix 7 – Participant recruitment flowchart	1	November 2011
Appendix 8 – Time/Spend diary example	1	November 2011
Appendix 9 – Focus group topic schedule	1	November 2011
Appendix 10 – Staff Consent Form	1	November 2011

Appendix 11

Chapter 7 tables not presented in findings

Changes in week-day socializing in2012 and 2013: age groups

Week-day Activity	19 years 2012	19 years 2013	20 years 2012	20 years 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Chatting with friends	76.9 (68.9) 71 (87.7%)	79.5 (72.0) 47 (85.5%)	61.3 (50.6) 36 (69.2%)	76.1 (66.8) 73 (72.3%)	76.9 (64.0) 167 (83.5)	77.5 (68.6) 120 (76.9%)
Shopping for pleasure	27.5 (14.4) 33 (40.7%)	34.4 (22.4) 33 (60.0%)	33.6 (25.7) 20 (38.5%)	26.6 (14.5) 48 (47.5%)	28.3 (17.6) 84 (42.0%)	29.8 (18.4) 81 (51.9%)
Drinking alcohol	72.5 (49.4) 38 (46.9%)	57.6 (49.1) 25 (45.5%)	51.3 (39.4) 9 (17.3%)	46.8 (33.2) 40 (39.6%)	63.8 (46.4) 78 (39.0%)	51.0 (40.0) 65 (41.7%)
Going out for a drink	42.3 (29.3) 23 (28.4%)	25.9 (23.3) 22 (40.0%)	55.4 (37.3) 13 (25.0%)	29.3 (17.1) 33 (32.7%)	42.2 (29.5) 57 (28.5%)	37.7 (33.8) 39 (19.5%)
Going out for a meal	30.8 (26.5) 22 (27.2%)	24.5 (15.0) 12 (21.8%)	21.7 (13.8) 13 (25.0%)	43.6 (38.2) 27 (26.7%)	27.4 (20.0) 55 (27.5%)	27.9 (19.7) 55 (35.3%)
Society or club meeting	34.0 (28.6) 12 (14.8%)	55.8 (39.6) 17 (30.9%)	33.6 (18.3) 5 (9.6%)	38.3 (31.0) 16 (15.8%)	43.9 (31.9) 31 (15.5%)	47.2 (36.2) 33 (21.2%)
Drinking tea, coffee or juice	16.2 (15.0) 20 (24.7%)	19.9 (20.3) 19 (34.6%)	17.2 (12.9) 22 (42.3%)	19.7 (17.7) 28 (27.7%)	17.2 (16.3) 60 (30.0%	19.8 (18.6) 47 (30.1%)
Going out to a party	48.4 (51.5) 17 (21.0%)	46.7 (36.4) 14 (25.5%)	50.6 (44.9) 7 (13.5%)	39.7 (30.5) 18 (17.8%)	53.2 (55.2) 31 (15.5%)	42.8 (32.9) 32 (20.5%)
Dancing	39.1 (26.0) 23 (28.4%)	33.5 (24.1) 12 (21.8%)	20.0 (24.2) 3 (5.8%)	45.7 (25.2) 13 (12.9%)	42.2 (29.1) 40 (20.0%)	39.8 (24.9) 25 (16.1%)
Day out	44.0 (29.8) 15 (18.5%)	36.0 (13.1) 6 (10.9%)	46.8 (36.3) 5 (9.6%)	32.6 (9.3) 14 (13.9%)	38.9 (26.5) 33 (16.5%)	37.2 (16.9) 10 (6.4%)
Cinema, theatre or concert	44.5 (27.8) 12 (14.8%)	42.0 (8.5) 2 (3.6%)	37.7 (20.1) 7 (13.5%)	36.0 (18.7) 8 (7.9%)	41.4 (21.9) 29 (14.5%)	33.6 (10.4) 20 (12.8%)

Changes in weekend-day socializing in2012 and 2013: age groups

Weekend-day Activity	19 years 2012	19 years 2013	20 years 2012	20 years 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Chatting with friends	95.3 (70.4) 53 (65.4%)	108.9 (77.4) 31 (56.4%)	82.5 (70.8) 22 (42.3%)	119.1 (97.2) 51 (50.1%)	98.9 (78.6) 123 (61.5%)	115.2 (89.8) 82 (52.6%)
Shopping for pleasure	80.2 (51.7) 23 (28.4%)	75.0 (36.0) 17 (30.9%)	77.5 (55.7) 12 (23.1%)	73.0 (46.8) 23 (22.8%)	77.9 (47.5) 56 (28.0%)	73.9 (42.1) 40 (25.6%)
Drinking alcohol	98.1 (73.4) 13 (16.1%)	103.6 (53.4) 11 (20.0%)	185.0 (156.1) 3 (5.8%)	105.0 (54.9) 11 (10.9%)	117.7 (100.9) 26 (13.0)	104.3 (52.9) 22 (14.1%)
Going out for a drink	100.7 (61.0) 14 (17.3%)	46.4 (31.1) 11 (20.0%)	85.0 (41.0) 6 (11.5%)	52.1 (29.6) 17 (16.8%)	89.1 (54.1) 33 (16.5%)	102.5 (62.0) 24 (15.4%)
Going out for a meal	66.3 (40.5) 24 (29.6%)	108.0 (41.7) 10 (18.2%)	49.6 (21.6) 13 (25.0%)	98.6 (74.6) 14 (13.9%)	61.3 (33.4) 56 (28.0%)	49.8 (29.7) 28 (18.0%)
Society or club meeting	70.0 (52.7) 3 (3.7%)	45.0 (21.2) 2 (3.6%)	90.0 (42.4) 2 (3.9%)	65.0 (26.3) 6 (5.9%)	114.4 (104.8) 8 (4.0%)	60.0 (25.4) 8 (5.1%)
Drinking tea, coffee or juice	35.0 (34.4) 9 (11.1%)	56.3 (38.2) 8 (14.6%)	40.9 (34.3) 11 (21.2%)	22.5 (10.1) 12 (11.9%)	34.4 (29.0) 31 (15.5%)	36.0 (29.8) 20 (12.8%)
Going out to a party	93.0 (106.8) 5 (6.2%)	105.0 (74.5) 4 (7.3%)	45.0 (0.0) 1 (1.9%)	- -	98.3 (85.5) 9 (4.5%)	105.0 (74.5) 4 (2.6%)
Dancing	86.3 (55.3) 4 (4.9%)	67.5 (10.6) 2 (3.6%)	- -	52.5 (53.0) 2 (2.0%)	78.8 (47.9) 8 (4.0%)	60.0 (32.4) 4 (2.6%)
Day out	115.9 (50.7) 11 (13.6%)	84.0 (22.7) 5 (9.1%)	176.3 (141.3) 8 (15.4%)	75.0 (32.9) 6 (5.9%)	124.4 (92.9) 27 (13.5%)	87.3 (48.3) 11 (7.1%)
Cinema, theatre or concert	83.2 (14.0) 11 (13.6%)	90.0 (44.2) 4 (7.3%)	108.8 (25.6) 4 (7.7%)	85.7 (48.3) 7 (6.9%)	91.4 (22.7) 21 (10.5%)	79.1 (27.7) 11 (7.1%)

Changes in week-day socializing in2012 and 2013: students' family HE history

Week-day Activity	First generation 2012	First generation 2013	Second generation 2012	Second generation 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Chatting with friends	78.5 (68.1) 103 (83.7%)	81.5 (72.0) 73 (78.5%)	74.2 (57.0) 64 (83.1%)	71.1 (63.1) 47 (74.6%)	76.9 (64.0) 167 (83.5)	77.5 (68.6) 120 (76.9%)
Shopping for pleasure	30.3 (20.1) 55 (44.7%)	27.7 (16.0) 46 (49.5%)	24.4 (10.6) 29 (37.7%)	32.6 (21.1) 35 (32.6%)	28.3 (17.6) 84 (42.0%)	29.8 (18.4) 81 (51.9%)
Drinking alcohol	65.7 (47.8) 44 (35.8%)	50.8 (39.4) 38 (40.9%)	61.2 (45.2) 34 (44.2%)	51.1 (41.6) 27 (42.9%)	63.8 (46.4) 78 (39.0%)	51.0 (40.0) 65 (41.7%)
Going out for a drink	43.8 (26.7) 34 (27.6%)	35.2 (34.0) 23 (24.7%)	39.9 (33.9) 23 (29.9%)	41.3 (34.3) 16 (25.4%)	42.2 (29.5) 57 (28.5%)	37.7 (33.8) 39 (19.5%)
Going out for a meal	32.2 (24.4) 30 (24.4%)	26.3 (18.3) 32 (34.4%)	21.6 (10.7) 25 (32.5%)	30.3 (21.7) 23 (36.5%)	27.4 (20.0) 55 (27.5%)	27.9 (19.7) 55 (35.3%)
Society or club meeting	37.9 (27.4) 16 (13.0%)	45.0 (36.2) 16 (17.2%)	50.4 (35.8) 15 (19.5%)	49.4 (37.2) 17 (27.0%)	43.9 (31.9) 31 (15.5%)	47.2 (36.2) 33 (21.2%)
Going out to a party	46.6 (43.2) 17 (13.8%)	37.4 (26.5) 17 (18.3%)	61.3 (67.8) 14 (18.2%)	48.8 (38.9) 15 (23.8%)	53.2 (55.2) 31 (15.5%)	42.8 (32.9) 32 (20.5%)
Dancing	43.9 (30.9) 22 (17.9%)	44.3 (28.0) 16 (17.2%)	40.0 (27.5) 18 (23.4%)	32.0 (17.0) 9 (14.3%)	42.2 (29.1) 40 (20.0%)	39.8 (24.9) 25 (16.1%)
Day out	42.4 (31.5) 14 (11.4%)	36.0 (10.4) 3 (3.2%)	36.3 (22.6) 19 (24.7%)	37.7 (19.8) 7 (11.1%)	38.9 (26.5) 33 (16.5%)	37.2 (16.9) 10 (6.4%)
Cinema, theatre or concert	42.3 (23.3) 19 (15.5%)	33.9 (11.7) 14 (15.1%)	39.6 (20.0) 10 (13.0%)	33.0 (7.3) 6 (9.5%)	41.4 (21.9) 29 (14.5%)	33.6 (10.4) 20 (12.8%)

Changes in weekend-day socializing in2012 and 2013: students' family HE history

Weekend-day Activity	First generation 2012	First generation 2013	Second generation 2012	Second generation 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Chatting with friends	101.3 (70.7) 72 (58.5%)	128.7 (96.1) 50 (53.8%)	95.6 (89.1) 51 (66.2%)	94.2 (75.7) 32 (50.8%)	98.9 (78.6) 123 (61.5%)	115.2 (89.8) 82 (52.6%)
Shopping for pleasure	77.5 (53.5) 36 (29.3%)	74.4 (48.2) 27 (29.0%)	78.8 (35.4) 20 (26.0%)	72.7 (26.6) 13 (20.6%)	77.9 (47.5) 56 (28.0%)	73.9 (42.1) 40 (25.6%)
Drinking alcohol	144.6 (125.2) 14 (11.4%)	107.5 (51.9) 12 (12.9%)	86.3 (51.2) 12 (15.6%)	100.5 (56.6) 10 (15.9%)	117.7 (100.9) 26 (13.0)	104.3 (52.9) 22 (14.1%)
Going out for a drink	107.4 (54.8) 19 (15.5%)	93.2 (56.5) 14 (15.1%)	64.3 (43.4) 14 (18.2%)	115.5 (70.0) 10 (15.9%)	89.1 (54.1) 33 (16.5%)	102.5 (62.0) 24 (15.4%)
Going out for a meal	63.4 (32.6) 35 (28.5%)	49.0 (31.3) 15 (16.1%)	57.9 (35.3) 21 (27.3%)	50.8 (29.1) 13 (20.6%)	61.3 (33.4) 56 (28.0%)	49.8 (29.7) 28 (18.0%)
Society or club meeting	90.0 (28.1) 5 (4.1%)	62.5 (17.5) 6 (6.5%)	155.0 (181.5) 3 (3.9%)	52.5 (53.0) 2 (3.2%)	114.4 (104.8) 8 (4.0%)	60.0 (25.4) 8 (5.1%)
Going out to a party	117.9 (87.6) 7 (5.7%)	150.0 (0.0) 1 (1.1%)	30.0 (21.2) 2 (2.6%)	90.0 (83.5) 3 (4.8%)	98.3 (85.5) 9 (4.5%)	105.0 (74.5) 4 (2.6%)
Dancing	60.0 (61.2) 4 (3.3%)	60.0 (0.0) 1 (1.1%)	97.5 (26.0) 4 (5.2%)	60.0 (39.7) 3 (4.8%)	78.8 (47.9) 8 (4.0%)	60.0 (32.4) 4 (2.6%)
Day out	110.0 (55.4) 18 (14.6%)	100.0 (43.1) 9 (9.7%)	153.3 (141.9) 9 (11.7%)	30.0 (21.2) 2 (3.2%)	124.4 (92.9) 27 (13.5%)	87.3 (48.3) 11 (7.1%)
Cinema, theatre or concert	87.7 (21.9) 13 (10.6%)	75.0 (31.2) 7 (7.5%)	97.5 (24.1) 8 (10.4%)	86.3 (22.5) 4 (6.4%)	91.4 (22.7) 21 (10.5%)	79.1 (27.7) 11 (7.1%)

Changes in other leisure since 2012 on week-days and weekend-days: sex differences

Week-day Activity	Males 2012	Males 2013	Females 2012	Females 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation)					
	N (% of students participating in activity)					
Reading for pleasure	26.7 (21.6)	25.1 (18.7)	42.8 (47.2)	38.9 (31.7)	38.1 (41.9)	35.9 (29.7)
	18 (27.7%)	11 (21.6%)	44 (32.6%)	40 (38.1%)	62 (31.0%)	51 (32.7%)
Hobbies	28.4 (15.9)	27.6 (16.2)	21.9 (13.1)	16.0 (7.9)	24.4 (14.3)	20.1 (12.4)
	11 (16.9%)	5 (9.8%)	17 (12.6%)	9 (8.6%)	28 (14.0%)	14 (9.0%)
Religious worship	12.0 (0.0)	12.0 (0.0)	10.5 (9.0)	45.0 (27.9)	10.8 (7.8)	38.4 (28.3)
	1 (1.5%)	1 (2.0%)	4 (3.0%)	4 (3.8%)	5 (2.5%)	5 (3.2%)

Weekend-day Activity	Males 2012	Males 2013	Females 2012	Females 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation)					
	N (% of students participating in activity)					
Reading for pleasure	72.7 (69.2)	55.0 (37.7)	55.2 (39.1)	63.1 (41.0)	61.2 (51.2)	62.2 (40.1)
	13 (20.0%	3 (5.9%)	25 (18.5%)	24 (22.9%)	38 (19.0%)	27 (17.3%)
Hobbies	66.0 (48.1)	130.0 (85.7)	58.0 (47.7)	68.6 (44.9)	60.0 (46.7)	96.9 (71.3)
	5 (7.7%)	6 (11.8%)	15 (11.1%)	7 (6.7%)	20 (10.0%)	13 (8.3%)
Religious worship	114.0 (87.8)	97.5 (53.0)	90.0 (34.6)	61.7 (27.5)	100.0 (60.1)	68.2 (33.1)
	5 (7.7%)	2 (3.9%)	7 (5.2%)	9 (8.6%)	12 (6.0%)	11 (7.1%)

Changes in other leisure since 2012 on week-days and weekend-days: age-group differences

Week-day Activity	19 years 2012	19 years 2013	20 years 2012	20 years 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Reading for pleasure	34.4 (38.3) 27 (33.3%)	28.7 (19.3) 19 (34.6%)	43.5 (38.5) 16 (30.8%)	40.1 (34.1) 32 (31.7%)	38.1 (41.9) 62 (31.0%)	35.9 (29.7) 51 (32.7%)
Hobbies	28.0 (11.2) 9 (11.1%)	24.0 (14.7) 7 (12.7%)	18.0 (15.9) 7 (13.5%)	16.3 (9.0) 7 (6.9%)	24.4 (14.3) 28 (14.0%)	20.1 (12.4) 14 (9.0%)
Religious worship	14.0 (9.2) 3 (3.7%)	48.0 (33.9) 2 (3.6%)	- -	32.0 (29.6) 3 (3.0%)	10.8 (7.8) 5 (2.5%)	38.4 (28.3) 5 (3.2%)

Weekend-day Activity	19 years 2012	19 years 2013	20 years 2012	20 years 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Reading for pleasure	43.8 (30.9) 13 (16.1%)	61.7 (51.7) 9 (16.4%)	65.5 (50.8) 11 (21.2%)	62.5 (34.6) 18 (17.8%)	61.2 (51.2) 38 (19.0%)	62.2 (40.1) 27 (17.3%)
Hobbies	77.5 (64.6) 6 (7.4%)	142.5 (75.1) 6 (10.9%)	52.5 (26.4) 6 (11.5%)	57.9 (40.1) 7 (6.9%)	60.0 (46.7) 20 (10.0%)	96.9 (71.3) 13 (8.3%)
Religious worship	90.0 (47.4) 4 (4.9%)	80.0 (37.7) 3 (5.5%)	127.5 (87.0) 4 (7.7%)	63.8 (32.8) 8 (7.9%)	100.0 (60.1) 12 (6.0%)	68.2 (33.1) 11 (7.1%)

*** No students of 18 years in 2013**

Changes in other leisure since 2012 on week-days and weekend-days: term-time residence

Week-day Activity	PH 2012	PH 2013	NPH 2012	NPH 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Reading for pleasure	25.3 (24.3) 9 (32.1%)	56.6 (37.8) 7 (33.3%)	40.3 (44.0) 53 (30.8%)	32.6 (27.4) 44 (32.8%)	38.1 (41.9) 62 (31.0%)	35.9 (29.7) 51 (32.7%)
Hobbies	28.8 (15.5) 5 (17.9%)	- -	23.5 (14.2) 23 (13.4%)	20.1 (12.4) 14 (10.5%)	24.4 (14.3) 28 (14.0%)	20.1 (12.4) 14 (9.0%)
Religious worship	6.0 (0.0) 1 (3.6%)	- -	12.0 (8.5) 4 (2.3%)	38.4 (28.3) 5 (3.7%)	10.8 (7.8) 5 (2.5%)	38.4 (28.3) 5 (3.2%)

Weekend-day Activity	PH 2012	PH 2013	NPH 2012	NPH 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Reading for pleasure	41.3 (22.5) 4 (14.3%)	52.5 (28.1) 6 (28.6%)	63.5 (53.3) 34 (19.8%)	65.0 (43.0) 21 (15.7%)	61.2 (51.2) 38 (19.0%)	62.2 (40.1) 27 (17.3%)
Hobbies	30.0 (15.0) 3 (10.7%)	120.0 (0.0) 1 (4.8%)	65.3 (48.6) 17 (9.9%)	95.0 (74.1) 12 (9.0%)	60.0 (46.7) 20 (10.0%)	96.9 (71.3) 13 (8.3%)
Religious worship	60.0 (0.0) 1 (3.6%)	60.0 (0.0) 1 (4.8%)	103.6 (61.6) 11 (6.4%)	69.0 (34.8) 10 (7.5%)	100.0 (60.1) 12 (6.0%)	68.2 (33.1) 11 (7.1%)

Changes in other leisure since 2012 on week-days and weekend-days: term-time residence

Week-day Activity	First generation 2012	First generation 2013	Non-first generation 2012	Non-first generation 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Reading for pleasure	34.9 (29.1) 43 (35.0%)	38.1 (29.1) 34 (36.6%)	45.5 (62.5) 19 (24.7%)	31.4 (31.4) 17 (27.0%)	38.1 (41.9) 62 (31.0%)	35.9 (29.7) 51 (32.7%)
Hobbies	20.8 (12.9) 17 (13.8%)	24.0 (14.7) 7 (7.5%)	30.0 (15.2) 11 (14.3%)	16.3 (9.0) 7 (11.1%)	24.4 (14.3) 28 (14.0%)	20.1 (12.4) 14 (9.0%)
Religious worship	6.0 (0.0) 2 (1.6%)	52.0 (29.6) 3 (3.2%)	14.0 (9.2) 3 (3.9%)	18.0 (8.5) 2 (3.2%)	10.8 (7.8) 5 (2.5%)	38.4 (28.3) 5 (3.2%)

Weekend-day Activity	First generation 2012	First generation 2013	Non-first generation 2012	Non-first generation 2013	All 2012	All 2013
	Mean minutes per person per day (standard deviation) N (% of students participating in activity)					
Reading for pleasure	69.1 (53.7) 23 (18.7%)	54.8 (33.8) 20 (21.5%)	49.0 (46.2) 15 (19.5%)	83.6 (51.1) 7 (11.1%)	61.2 (51.2) 38 (19.0%)	62.2 (40.1) 27 (17.3%)
Hobbies	58.8 (43.5) 13 (10.6%)	93.8 (54.2) 8 (8.6%)	62.1 (55.7) 7 (9.1%)	102.0 (100.3) 5 (7.9%)	60.0 (46.7) 20 (10.0%)	96.9 (71.3) 13 (8.3%)
Religious worship	123.0 (82.4) 5 (4.1%)	78.8 (28.4) 4 (4.3%)	83.6 (36.6) 7 (9.1%)	62.1 (36.2) 7 (11.1%)	100.0 (60.1) 12 (6.0%)	68.2 (33.1) 11 (7.1%)